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INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT, COMMERCE,

AND

GENERAL LITERATURE.

Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts are the basis of Civilization.

M. TARVER & T. F. RISK,
EDITORS AND PROPRIETORS.

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M. TARVER AND T. F. RISK, Editors and Proprietors.

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THE

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ARTICLE I.

EMIGRATION FROM EUROPE TO AMERICA.

The principal causes which modify and limit the increase of population, seem not to have been appreciated by the political economists or statesmen of any period in the history of man. In every state of society, from the hunter to the highest condition attained by civilized nations, the multiplication of the race demands a continual augmentation of the means of subsistence. This is a condition imposed on man by a law of his nature compelling him by the penalties of famine, war, and expatriation to investigate and develop the boundless resources provided by the Creator for his subsistence and happiness.

Under the operations of this law, even wandering tribes of savages, numbering, it may be, not more than one individual to five square miles of the country which they claim, suffer all the evils of a redundant population. Relying alone upon the game and natural products of the earth for subsistence, their numbers are necessarily limited by the extent of these resources; whilst the horrors of famine are only mitigated by exterminating wars, waged for the occupation of more extensive and less exhausted hunting grounds. And thus the increase of savage nations is cut off and limited by the operations of natural laws, the penalties whereof can only be avoided by adopting the arts of civilization.

Civilization is to be regarded as a state of continual progression; and after emerging from a state of barbarism the causes affecting the increase of population become still more numerous and complicated than before. For whatever may be the physical properties or condition of any certain part of the globe, the increase of its inhabitants will now depend upon their intellectual, moral and social condition.

Habits of industry, improvements in the useful arts, and discoveries in physical science, are the obvious means of changing the normal condition of the elements placed under the control of man,

and of giving them such combination and form as render them available as sources of subsistence and comfort. But a people may be industrious; may advance rapidly in improvements of the useful arts; make valuable discoveries in physical science, and yet, radical defects in their civil institutions will retard and limit the increase of their numbers and finally cause a decline of population, even while the physical resources of the country remain abundant and comparatively unexplored.

When from any cause, whether physical, moral, or political, the productions which minister to the primary wants of a people cease to increase for a series of years in succession, famine must ensue as a necessary consequence, unless the redundant population be destroyed by war or emigrate to other lands.

Famine is a natural consequence of a redundant population: war and emigration are human expedients, calculated to avert the immediate danger of impending evils, but do not remove the cause; therefore, when peace shall have been restored or emigration shall have ceased, the danger recurs with an aspect not less threatening than before. But it has rarely occurred in the history of civilized man, that the relations subsisting between different nations were such as to admit of peaceable emigration to an extent sufficient to relieve a country, possessing a redundant population, from the horrors of famine. And hence the population of civilized as well as of savage nations has been kept down chiefly by the combined effects of war and famine.

Peaceable and unrestricted emigration from one country to another, of numbers sufficient to affect materially the condition of both, has so rarely occurred that there is no instance on record from which we can infer the consequences of such a movement. But, it would seem that, unless the causes which tend to limit the increase be removed, the current of emigration, when once set in motion, would continue to be supplied from its original source; at least, until the country to which it flowed could no longer furnish emigrants with the means of subsistence. And, provided the productions of the over populous country should not decline, the ratio of increase would be augmented, and the number of emigrants enlarged from year to year.

We conclude, however, that emigration, so extensive as here supposed, would tend to check improvements in the useful arts, and diminish the production of commodities necessary to sustain those who should remain in their own country; because, by removing the redundant population, the necessities which continually urge mankind to investigate the properties of nature, and invent new methods of educing thence the means of subsistence, would be removed also. So, too, the popular influences which tend to liberalize the political institutions of densely populated countries, would be weakened; while those principles which have heretofore retarded

the progressive increase of population, would be strengthened, or, at least, remain unimpaired.

The errors and imperfections of human institutions constitute the principal barrier to the increase of population; for there is no political division of the globe whose physical resources are not capable of sustaining a larger number of inhabitants, than is now embraced within its limits. We may refer to Ireland as an instance in proof of this assertion. According to McCulloch, of the 20,399,668 acres which that island contains, only 14.603,473 are cultivated. It is true that the uncultivated land consists chiefly of bog and mountain, but is nevertheless susceptible of improvement. Ireland also exports breadstuffs and provisions, and yet a considerable portion of her population is continually so near the verge of starvation, that an unpropitious season for her crops subjects the nation to the horrors of famine. Now it is obvious that the natural resources of Ireland, if fully developed and justly distributed, would be abundantly sufficient to sustain even a larger population in a comfortable condition. But owing, in part. to the operations of the political and social institutions by which the country is governed, and in part to a defective system of public and private economy, a considerable number of the inhabitants have been compelled to emigrate to escape from famine.

Referring to the facts and principles suggested in the preceding observations, we may justly conclude, that those who enjoy the most extensive privileges and property under the existing institutions of Europe, will cheerfully countenance and encourage the emigration of the poorer classes; for, by adopting this policy, they relieve themselves from the burthens of supporting the destitute, and at the same time remove the causes which are most likely to produce revolution and subvert the existing order of society.

Urged by necessity, induced by the prospect of improving their condition, and encouraged by the rich and privileged classes, we may reasonably expect that the emigration to this country will be augmented to an amount that will materially affect our own condition. The movement is gradually assuming a more systematic organization, and from present indications the number of passengers destined to our shores will, for years to come, be equal to the means provided for their transportation and subsistence on the voyage. And it is not extravagant to suppose that the time is near when the numbers annually arriving will exceed 500,000, or that they may even amount to 1,000,000, provided the nations of Europe should remain in peace during the next ten years.

It is not in the nature of things that so large an influx of foreigners can take place without producing important changes, as well in our commercial relations with other countries, as in our own public and private economy; and we should now begin to contemplate the nature of these changes for the purpose of enabling us to guard against any evil consequences which may possibly at-

tend them; and, also, to make them subservient to the advancement of our national prosperity.

It seems to be the general impression in this country that a large influx of foreign population will tend to reduce the prices of labor to the European standard; but we are persuaded that instead of reducing the price, or, at least, the rewards of labor here, it will tend to raise the rewards, and perhaps the nominal money price in Europe to the American standard.

Owing to the abundance and cheapness of lands in the West, it is in the power of every able bodied and industrious man to become the owner of a homestead; and whatever may have been his condition before, he is then no longer a hireling; and it is a well established fact, at least in this country, that where lands are cheap the price of labor is always so high as to leave but little profit to the farmer who employs it. In rural districts, therefore, instead of depressing, emigration will tend to enhance the price of labor, provided the demand for agricultural products should keep pace with their increase. Many causes will operate to augment this demand. The emigrants of one year necessarily increase the demand for the products of the year immediately preceding: and from this cause alone the prices of bread and provisions always rule high in districts which are rapidly filling up with new comers. Besides, a large proportion of the emigrants are mechanics and artizans, who, locating in cities and towns, must be fed from the country; and if we take into consideration the numbers which will probably be employed in mining, on works of public improvement, and in the many new branches of industry which will be introduced by themselves or others by whom they will be employed, we shall find many reasons in support of the opinion that foreign emigration will not depress the prices of labor below the average rates heretofore obtained by the citizens of this country.

This is the first, and to us the most interesting point to be considered in connection with the subject of foreign emigration. For if we can give employment to all foreign emigrants at remunerating prices, their labor, added to our own, will produce results which, long before the close of the present century, will astonish the civilized world. Hitherto our population has doubled in about twenty-four years; but with the annual addition of 500,000 emigrants, it will increase 100 per cent. in about fifteen years. Our tonnage, employed in commerce, has doubled in about sixteen years, and has increased about seventy-five per cent. during the eight years ending 30th June 1850. It is now supposed to be equal in amount to that of Great Britain. Judging from the present aspect of the civilized world, we may calculate our population in 1865 at 46,000,000, and our civil marine, including steamboats employed on our rivers, at 10,000,000 tons. These estimates may be regarded as extravagant by some of our readers, more especially by our British patrons, as the latter will be reluctant to admit that

the scepter of commerce is destined so soon to depart from those by whom it has been swayed so long over land and sea.

In this mighty tide of emigration now flowing to our shores, we recognize the progress of a great commercial revolution, especially in this country. It is bringing the consumers of our surplus breadstuffs and provisions nearer to the producers, and the manufacturers nearer to the raw material, by which all parties must be greatly benefitted; but none so much, perhaps, as the American agriculturist. For by the purchase and consumption of British goods, he assists the manufacturer to pay the British farmer a profit on his produce, after adding to its cost, land rent, tithes, poor rates, and other burthens imposed by an expensive government. By transferring the manufacturers and operatives to this country, these profits will inure, at least in part, to our own farmers and landholders, who now contribute to the support of foreign governments, minister to the extravagance of the rich, and assist in maintaining the poor of other nations.

But we must not expect to realize all the advantages, which have been suggested, without doing something on our part to secure them. Our excellent institutions cannot be preserved in their full strength and purity, without a high degree of intelligence and moral improvement, diffused throughout the entire mass of population. Of the emigrants who arrive in this country from Europe, a large proportion are poor and uneducated, and it will be many years before they can place themselves in a condition that will enable them to educate their children. And hence it will become an imperious duty on the part of the respective States of the Union, to organize and establish systems of public schools upon a plan, that will secure to every child within their limits, a sufficient amount of instruction to prepare them for the discharge of their duties as citizens of a republican form of government. If we neglect to do this, the large number of emigrants which may be expected from other countries, will tend to weaken our institutions, and retard our progress in moral and social improvement. Let no one object to the cost of supporting such a system of education on the ground that our foreign population will be the principal recipients of its benefits. Such will not be the case: the benefits will inure alike to all; and we regard this as the only means, by which our country can avoid the evil consequences of foreign emigration and realize the important advantages, which it is calculated to afford. Therefore, we desire to impress this subject upon the minds of our readers, for the purpose of inciting a more lively interest in the adoption of a system of common school education. Let us discharge our whole duty on this point, and the most extravagant calculations respecting the increase of population and speedy development of the resources of this continent, will be more than realized.

The machinery and capital of Europe will, in due time, follow

the operatives across the Atlantic: and when located here, the commercial revolution, to which allusion has been made, will be complete. We shall then, and not until then, have escaped from the provincial relation, which we have so long occupied towards Great Britain. It is true that our political relations as colonists were severed by the revolution, but we have, nevertheless, through the medium of our commercial relations, contributed largely to the support of the government and people of the mother country, and we must continue to do so, until our short-sighted policy shall be overruled by natural laws. The operation of these laws, however, is gradually becoming more apparent in the direction of our public and private economy, as we extend the area of our settlements, and increase in numbers. The great principles involved in our political institutions have been modified and, in some degree, restrained in their operations by our dependence upon other countries for many of the necessaries and comforts of subsistence. While our numbers were small, compared to the great nations of Europe, our form of government was regarded as a doubtful experiment; and consequently the influence of our institutions made little impression and was scarcely felt by the people of other countries; but the unparalleled increase of population and vast extent of our resources begin to attract the attention of the civilized world.

The poor flock to our shores to escape from a state of penury, which cannot be relieved by toil in their own native land. The man of enterprise comes, to avail himself of the advantages afforded by a wider and more varied field for the exercise of his industry and talents; and the oppressed of every land, thirsting for deliverance from the paralyzing effects of unjust institutions, come to enjoy the blessings of a government, which secures life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness to all its constituents. Let them come. They will convert our waste lands into fruitful fields, vineyards, and gardens; construct works of public improvement; build up and establish manufactures; and open our rich mines of coal, of iron, of lead, and of copper. And more than all, they will be the means of augmenting our commerce, and aid us in extending the influence of our political, social, and religious institutions throughout the earth.

But it must be remembered that these sublime objects are not to be attained without a strict observance of the great principles which lie at the foundation of our own political institutions. A high degree of intelligence, diffused throughout the entire mass of population; a liberal patriotism, so blended with self-love and local attachments, as to make their active and powerful properties subservient to the general welfare and glory of the nation; and, a profound sense of the duties imposed on each and every individual to do all that he reasonably can to advance the cause of civilization, are qualifications necessary to enable us to achieve the great objects of our mission.

The earlier emigrants, who settled the Atlantic slope of this continent, and their descendants, while defending themselves against savage incursions, subduing the forest, and suffering all the privations incident to pioneers in a country remote from the civilized world, laid the foundations of the most excellent institutions ever established by the wisdom of man. Nobly did they perform the first act in the drama of American history: and their deeds shall receive the plaudits of an admiring world, even of its last generation. This great valley has been settled under more favorable auspices: and upon its inhabitants will devolve the important trust of preserving in their pristine purity, and of developing to their full extent, the political and social principles adopted and established by our forefathers of the Atlantic States.

The principal portion of the emigrants who reach our shores, will finally locate in the valley of the Mississippi; and their numbers in some of the newer States will in all probability exceed the native born citizens. Reared under institutions widely differing from our own; many of them ignorant of the science of all governments; and all strangers to the practical operations of republican institutions, unceasing vigilance will be required on our part to guard against innovations and prevent the formation of parties, representing the interests and sentiments of those born in other lands.

To prevent such a result, we must give more encouragement to the cause of education, be more circumspect in the selection of our legislators, and by a liberal, yet firm and upright course of policy, secure the confidence and affections of our foreign population.

The considerations inducing the people of other lands to emigrate to our shores, constitute the strongest guaranty on their part that they will cheerfully conform to the laws and social usages of this, their adopted country, and zealously co-operate in carrying out all necessary measures, calculated to promote the advancement of our national glory. This much we have a right to expect: it is all we claim at their hands.

Thus united in the great cause of civilization, and acting in concert, the influence of our political and social institutions shall gain strength from increase of numbers, until the principles of despotism which have enthralled the masses of the old world, shall be eradicated, and the condition of all nations improved by our example.

ARTICLE II.

PARASITIC FUNGI.

A Lecture, delivered in the City of Norwich, England, at the Annual Meeting of the Royal Agricultural Society, July 18, 1849.

BY REV. EDWARD SIDNEY, A. M.

Gentlemen :—I have no common satisfaction in addressing you in a country where for many years my humble efforts, made long before similar exertions had become at all general, were so favorably received and kindly acknowledged by all classes of persons. I will not, however, indulge myself by any further preface, but proceed at once to the task I have cheerfully undertaken. I shall endeavor to describe in simple, popular language, the nature, habits, and, as far as I can, the preventives or palliatives of the principal *parasitic fungi* of the British farm, beyond which, of course, I cannot go; avoiding all needless technicalities, and stamping my explanations with those characters which will promote their currency with every hearer. Whenever I am obliged to use a scientific term, I shall try to explain it; and I commence by remarking that the epithet *parasitic* applied to a plant, means that it lives at the cost of that on which it grows. A *fungus* is a cellular plant without flowers, living on air and nourished through a *stalk*, *stem*, or *spawn*, called its *mycelium*. It is propagated by minute seeds, or spores, or sporules, either colorless or not, but never green, and occasionally inclosed in skinny coverings, termed *sporidia*, or spore cases. Fungi live by imbibing juices impregnated with the peculiar principles of the matrix on which they grow. The spores mostly germinate either by a protrusion of the inner membrane, or by a lengthening of the outer covering; and the spawn is the development of these spores, or of itself already produced, possessing the power of imbibing the juices just alluded to. The most familiar example is common mushroom spawn, which the little seeds will sometimes throw out on strips of glass, so as to be well observed. *Fungals* most commonly grow upon animal or vegetable substances in a state of decomposition; but many of the simplest organization attack tissues, in which its commencement is at least not ascertainable, or, if commencing, hasten it beyond recovery. The simplest form of a fungus is common mouldiness, which has two types. The first, as may be seen by the aid of the microscope, is composed of jointed threads made up of simple cells, placed end to end, which separate and seem capable of reproduction. This is represented in Plate 5, fig. 1, where the little cells may be seen placed as described. These cells are capable of being separated, and appear to be reproductive. The second as-

sumes a thread-like appearance, bearing spores upon the tips of the threads, or on short processes, and sometimes in cases, by the rupture of which they are dispersed. They sometimes assume the beautiful appearance delineated in Plate 5, fig. 2, where the jointed threads and the attachment of the spores in the way mentioned will be perceived. The actual forms even of these simplest fungals are thus shown to be extremely interesting. Examples of spores in cases will be pointed out as we proceed. In a higher state, fungi take a determinate figure, formed of a mass of cellular tissue, the centre of which is all spores, attached to it often in fours. This at length dries up, leaving only the dusty spores, as in the case of a common puff-ball. The most completely formed fungi have two distinct surfaces, one of which is even and without any opening,—the other separated into plates, called the *hymenium*, or *gills*, to which the spores are attached, generally four together, as seen in Plate 5, fig. 3. Upon these differences of structure depend those various attempts at botanical arrangement, which I have no time to describe. So numerous are the seeds, spores, or sporules of fungi, that it is not easy to conceive a place whence they are excluded. Those which grow on matter in which decomposition has decidedly begun, have been well called the "scavengers of nature;" but others of a most minute description, some of which belong to my subject, apparently attack tissues in full health and vigor.

With regard to the properties of fungi, I can only mention in a word that they are respectively *eatable*, *poisonous*, *medicinal*, *intoxicating*, and even *luminous*, lighting up with their living lustre mines and caverns where they grow, and in some places assuming at night the appearance of pendulous lamps hanging from the trees on which they vegetate.

(1.) I now propose first to describe the chief of those minute parasitic fungi which injure the corn and grasses of this country, premising that corn plants are themselves only grasses, the seeds of which are sufficiently large for our food. These little pests generally present themselves to the unassisted eye under the form of masses of dust, differently colored, and appear on all parts of the plants except the roots. (1.) The stems or straw of our corn plants, and also the leaves, are frequently disfigured by a dark series of patches, constituting true mildew, and called by botanists *puccinia*, from the Greek PUKA, *thickly*, because of the dense masses of which it consists. It is found upon reed as well as corn, but the microscope reveals a slight difference in the structure of the spores, by which the puccinia of one species of plant is distinguishable from that of another. It was imperfectly noticed by Felice Fontana in 1797, but in 1804 was investigated more closely under the auspices of Sir Joseph Banks, on account of its ravages that season, and microscopical drawings, still in the British Museum, were executed by Mr. Bauer. Its common appearance is

seen in Plate 5, fig. 4, which represents it on the straw a little magnified. Its appearance under a first-rate modern microscope is shown in Plate 5, fig. 5, where you perceive that these dusty patches are crowds of club-shaped fungi (spores), the thicker end of each of which is divided into two chambers containing the reproductive sporules. They burst through the *epidermis*, or upper skin, which they lift up, and the sporules, dispersed through the air, have been thought to find entrance through the *stomata* or pores. The ground of this notion is, that the patches of mildew are first seen in small cavities immediately beneath these pores, which, as Professor Henslow, to whom I am indebted for the specimens now before you, observes, certainly looks very much as if the sporules entered there. With his usual caution, he remarks, that "the fact stands in need of proof, and that hitherto the evidence is more in favor of similar fungi being imbibed by the roots of the plants which they attack." We shall shortly see that some experiments on another fungal parasite of wheat tend to show that these fungi are developed in a manner little suspected even by the most accurate observers. This parasite robs the living plants of their juices, and must not be confounded with a very minute fungus, called *dipazea*, which is peculiar to the joints of the straw; nor, as is more common, with another black fungus, which gives a dingy aspect to whole fields towards harvest, and is often called mildew, but which never attacks a plant till it is previously diseased, and which, for want of any other name, I am obliged to announce by its botanical one, *Cladosporium herbarum*, the character of its growth being, as you see in Plate 6, fig. 6, totally unlike mildew. It grows on old leather as well as on wheat. The dissimilarity to *puccinia* is visible enough. Spores may be seen here in their cases. The common appearance of the straw, as shown in Plate 6. fig. 7, not being accurately observed, misleads. Though I have no other name but the botanical one by which to call it, I can trace its derivation to the Greek *klados*, a branch, because the spores grow on minute branches. Whatever tends to preserve the health of the wheat will prevent also the attacks of this fungus.

(2.) We now come to other minute parasitic fungi of corn-plants. They are called *uredines*, the plural of *uredo*, from the Latin *uro*, to burn, on account of the scorched appearance of the parts on which they vegetate.

Different parts are attacked by different species: the *uredo* of the maize alone growing everywhere except on the roots. The first *uredo* I shall mention is known familiarly to the farmer as rust, red-rag, red-robin, red-gum, and comes out in yellow or orange blotches on the stem, the leaf, and the chaff-scales, appearing as a powder. The hue of a whole field is often affected by it, and fears naturally arise; but it frequently happens that a few day's bright sunshine dissipates the fungus; but mischief has been done, and the crop feels it. It is called *uredo rubigo*, and under the

microscope the spores appear as in the drawing (Pl. 6, fig. 8). You may observe the spores in the highly magnified diagram, most accurately drawn from the microscope by Mr. Leonard. They are seen growing on the *mycelium*, which finds its matrix in the tissues of the plant. There is a curious botanical question, whether this *uredo* passes to *puccinia*. I think the best evidence confirms the opinion that such is the case.

(3.) The sooty powder on the flowering parts of corn-plants, called smut, chimney-sweepers, and dust-brand, is formed of the spores of another *uredo*, called *uredo segetum*. It renders the whole interior abortive; the pedicle of the flower swells, and a black dust occupies the whole. These spores are so diminutive that the diameter of one is only $\frac{1}{2800}$ inch. Strange to say, some farmers welcome its appearance, because they conceive it augurs a good crop, forgetting that whatever ear it attacks, it makes one less in that crop.

(4.) Another *uredo*, called bunt, or pepper-brand, seizes on the grain of wheat, and that to a great extent, if not guarded against. This *uredo* is termed *uredo fetida*, on account of its filthy odor. If you break a grain infected, you will find the flour replaced by a black mass, oily and fetid, and all the ovary is seen to be destroyed, except the integument, which swells, and incloses the spores, amounting in a single grain to nearly four millions. They are, like those of *uredo rubigo*, shown in Pl. 6, fig. 9, on their mycelium, or spawn, and are in diameter about $\frac{1}{600}$ inch. This drawing, also from the pencil of Mr. Leonard, shows the spores perfectly, as they would appear under an achromatic of $\frac{1}{16}$ inch focal length, with an eye-piece of moderate power. This *uredo* confines its attacks chiefly to the seed of wheat among our cereals; but some other plants, as the convolvulus, and of the grasses, rye-grass, bromus, and poa, are subject to have their seeds destroyed in a similar manner.

(5.) These *uredines*, as well as mildew, though till recently not understood, have long been the subjects of observation. Moses threatened the disobedient Israelites with mildew, and the Romans had their false god *Robigo*, whom they thought to propitiate for the preservation of their fields from the disastrous attack of these diseases. A feast called *Robigalia*, to this deity, was kept on the 25th of April, to deprecate blasting and mildew. The diseases themselves were long matters of curios speculation, and they were till lately regarded as accidents of vegetation, resulting in a mass of injured cells from the dampness of the soil, excess of manure, or fogs, or punctures of insects, and have even been attributed to the presence of the barberry, a fungus of which, called *æcidium*, is shown in Pl. 6, fig. 10. On the right, one of these receptacles, containing spores, is magnified, to show the form of this fungus. The *mycelium* on which it grows is also visible. There have been many botanists who have believed that the spores of *æcidium* come

up as uredines when they fix upon any cereal. It is the microscope which has enabled us to recognise in all these parasites a true fungal character, and to trace their growth; but the damage accruing from them has not been adequately estimated, for they never appear in the farm or garden without injury to the produce. For example, few can have failed to notice the effects of *uredo* on the rose trees, and also, but less frequently, on geraniums.

(6.) Numerous have been the speculations, and often ingenious the experiments on the way in which the reproductive sporules find entrance into corn-plants. Various remedies have been tried, and some with succes, as in the case of bunt, or pepper-brand, which may be effectually checked by good dressing of the seed. The principle of dressing is the conversion of the adhesive oily matter of the spores into that which is soapy, which is easily washed off. This requires an alkali, and suggests the use of lye of potash, soda, or wood-ashes. Liming also has a good effect. Sulphate of copper and arsenious acid, the arsenic of the shops, are often used; but, besides the other objections to them, there is the danger to the vegetative powers of the seed. It is not usual to dress for smut, which attacks not only wheat, but barley and oats; yet the same reason applies in these cases, except that more difficulties are in the way, because of the dissipation of the sporules before harvest, and the remainder being knocked out in threshing. It is important to ascertain with certainty how the contents of the spores grow. Those of bunt are too large to enter the *stomata*, yet if sown with wheat it reappears. Some think the mycelium divides the earth into molecules, each of which has a vegetative power, and that any one absorbed by the roots extends until it reaches its peculiar point of election in the system. Others conceive that the spongiols of the roots imbibe the fine contents of the spores, which grow. It is certain that due dressings and washings prevent the reappearance of bunt, and that excess of manure encourages red-robin and mildew, which have also been observed to follow long feeding with sheep. Among the antidotes to mildew, I venture to name clean farming, amendment of the texture of the soil, ventilation, and letting in light; checking over-luxuriance in the young plants, growing early varieties in places subject to it, and avoiding putting on manure directly before wheat, and hoeing the wheat when young.

(7.) There seems no reason to believe that any *uredo* mentioned is deleterious, though bunt is disagreeable in the flour. It has been said that in past times, there were gingerbread bakers who had no objection to flour which contained the black matter of bunt, as it saved them the brown sugar which they otherwise must have used, to render this confection sufficiently dark colored for the approbation of their customers. If such customers there ever were, they must have had more regard to appearance than to quality. But I am now about to describe a fungus closely allied to

uredo, which attacks grasses for hay, that appears to be quite poisonous. It is termed *ustilago*, having a similar derivation with *uredo*, and is left by Corda in his general classification in the same group. Tulasne wrote a long paper on *ustilago* in 1847, with drawings. The one in question is called *hypodytes*. Its spores are black, round, and very small, and I shall call it *grass-smut*. There was a great deal of it in 1848. In a field near King's Cliffe, almost every flower-stem of the *bromus sylvatica*, which was one of the principal grasses, was infected by it. A plant was taken by Mr. Berkeley from this field, and, instead of its throwing up fertile spikes, almost every one is attacked.

The structure in a very young stage is thread-like, but all traces of *mycelium* soon disappear, and nothing remains but a mass of minute spores. (Pl. 7, fig. 11.) The whole was drawn by Mr. Leonard from the specimen this day exhibited to the audience. In addition to the ruin of the grass, this fungus is most pernicious. According to Leveille, the immense quantity of black dust resulting from it in the hay-fields in France, produces disastrous consequences on the hay-makers, such as violent pains and swelling in the head and face, with a great irritation over the entire system. A like account was given of these peculiar maladies by Michel in 1845, which he compared to the well-known effects of ergot, on which singular abortion of the seeds of corn and grasses I do not enlarge here, because, though accompanied by a fungus called *ergotetia*, it cannot be called one. Botanists term it *ergotetia abortifaciens*, or ergot fungus, *rendering the seed an abortion;* but the only argument they adduce in favor of its producing ergot is, that it constantly attends it. But it is clear that because two things are coincident it does not follow that they are cause and effect, while the best examination does not warrant such an inference in this instance. I will only remark that it is more common than is supposed; and I am persuaded that cattle in ill-drained localities, where it always abounds, derive serious injury from it, and that it is the unsuspected cause of many disorders both in them and human beings.

Another *ustilago* named *typhoides* damages the stems of reeds, swelling and distorting them, and rendering them almost useless for thatching.

The only remedy for such a disease in a grass-field seems to be breaking it up, and substituting for it a crop not subject to its ravages.

I have not time to dwell on another kindred fungus found occasionally on the gramineous tribes. All are more or less subject to some *uredo* peculiar to them.

(8.) I may be expected to allude to the true theory of *fairy rings*, which are due to three species of the most highly organized fungi, called *agarics*. Mushrooms are agarics. Those of the fairy rings throw out their spawn in a circular direction, and the

ground being continually exhausted by it, a ring is formed, which is rendered greener than the surrounding grass by the stimulus of the spawn itself.

I may just observe that in some countries, grasses and corn, and particularly barley and rye, are destroyed by a curious mould, which is developed beneath the snow, and if it appears in snow without previous frost, it is often fatal to the whole crop. It has not yet been noticed in Great Britain, but the matter will be worthy of attention should any long frost occur. I cannot omit to mention here, that the mouldiness in stacked hay is generally the common *aspergill*, to be described presently, and sometimes the common *penicillium*, also coming under review. The spores of these will be seen to be injurious, and therefore such hay ought always to be steamed. The cut surface of hay-stalks is sometimes covered with a light orange or brick-dust red fungus, which is a fusarium, so termed from the spindle shape of the spores, but it is entirely confined to the stems composing the hay.

II. I go on next to the parasitic fungi of leguminous plants, which are particularly subject to them. A small *dipazea* destroys peas in wet seasons, attacking all parts, especially the pods; but the blight which we mostly see on peas, bears the botanical name *erysibe*, or *erysiphe*, the Greek for mildew, and is the same kind of mould that infests peach leaves. In its early stage it is a jointed mould, seemingly superficial, which on examination shows little globules, changing from yellow to black, and springing from a flocose web filled with minute sacs containing the sporules. (See Pl. 7, fig. 12.) These globules and the sacs containing the spores are here depicted; and a good idea may be formed from inspecting the drawing, of the character of this fungus, as exhibited by the microscope. They put out fibres, which lift them up from the surface of the leaf, and are preceded by threads, white, or grayish, consisting of bead-like joints, of which it seems the uppermost fall off and grow.

Beans are injured by a *uredo*, the *uredo of the bean*, which was very prevalent last year.

Vetches are attacked by a fungus styled *botrytis* from the Greek *botrus*, a bunch of grapes, because the spores grow in this way. (See Pl. 7, fig 13.) This drawing shows a minute portion highly magnified, and will convey a just idea of its appearance and of the cause of its name. It is called the *botrytis of the vetch*, in some places it attacks peas and lucerne, and it might therefore bear the name of the *leguminous botrytis*. *Botrytis* is distinguished from other moulds which are articulated, and so named *monilia* or *necklace* moulds, by it not having its threads jointed.

Dutrochet first stated, and I have verified it myself by a series of experiments detailed in my little work on the blights of wheat, that if a single drop of almost any acid is mixed with albumen, in eight or ten days necklace moulds appear; but on the other hand,

caustic alkali gives *botrytis*. With fibrine of blood and phosphoric acid, the results are reversed. Every sort of vegetable matter I tried with acid yielded a mould, but when albumen contained a neutral salt none appeared. If salts of mercury are present, the mould is stopped; æthiop's mineral does not check it; oxide of lead hastens it; oxides of copper, nickel, and cobalt retard it; oxides of iron, antimony, and zinc have no effect; all perfumes stop it. Flowers of sulphur effectually check the erysiphe on the peach, but they could not be applied to pea-fields. How far a knowledge of the facts I have just stated may lead to a remedy, easily applied in the shape of manure, future experiments may show.

III. These observations naturally lead to the *botrytis infestans*, found on the leaves of the potato when suffering from the true murrain. The *mycelium* of this fungus traverses the entire cellular tissue of the plant, and emerges from the *stomata* of the leaves, choking them, and the consequence is decay. Pl. 7, fig. 14, shows the microscopic appearance. This fungus is, I believe, new to Europe; so widely distributed a species could not have been overlooked. This diagram is the same as that given by Mr. Berkely in his admirable paper an the potato fungus. The mycelium may be observed traversing the cellular tissue of the leaf, and one of the threads of botrytis, that to the left, issuing from the stomata. Mr. Berkeley, the very highest authority, is of opinion, and he writes me word, "I am convinced more and more that the fungus is the real enemy." Certainly, all other theories have failed. The principles of the geographical distribution of food-plants plainly show us that extremely minute and unappreciable differences in climacteric condition may throw plants into an unhealthy state; which condition might exist unsuspected for a few years. Hereby plants may be brought into a state which renders them capable of being attacked by certain parasitic fungi, of which the potato blight may be an example, and the *botrytis infestans* becomes, as it really seems to be, the proximate cause of the malady. The *botrytis* is found on the tubers; but besides this, a *fusarium*, which must not be confounded with the former, nor regarded as characteristic of the potato disease, but of another, often occurring in the same tuber with it. (See Pl. 7, fig. 15.) This fusarium, highly magnified, is represented in this figure. It will be perceived to be totally different from the *botrytis*, and the spindle-shaped spores tell the origin of its designation. Genuine science alone enables us to make such discriminations; and it is not too much to hope that experiments founded on some such results as I have announced from the few I have had leisure to make, may lead to the discovery of a check to the growth of this pestiferous *botrytis*.

The root crop of the farm suffers much occasionally from fungal diseases. Parsneps are subject to a variety of the *botrytis parasitica*, which blights the leaves. The leaves of turnips are attacked

by the same fungus; but a different one, called *fusi-sporium*, is found on the roots, but with no extensive injury.

Mangold-wurzel is affected by the *uredo of beet*, with brown or black spores like that of the bean: but in all these cases the connection between the disease of the leaves and decay of the roots has not been sufficiently observed.

IV. Hops are damaged by an *erysiphe*, having the habits of that of the pea. It seems to be in its early stage a peculiar mould, but this opinion needs fuller confirmation. The whole subject needs investigation, and therefore I do not dwell upon it.

V. I now pass from the parasitic fungi of the fields to those found on other parts of the farm, its buildings, yards, and interior economy. The fungi destroying timber are not sufficiently known, though their effects are so common. Dry-rot is generally attributed to the spawn either of the *merulius lacrymans*, or *weeping morel*, so called from the little drops of water it contains, or to that of the *polyporus destructor*, named from its many pores. But any of the fungi found on wood, and they are numerous, are capable of producing it; and among them are, besides the two mentioned, another *morel* called *vastator*, the dædalia of the oak, deriving its appellation from its labyrinthian structure; various *polypori thelephora*, from *thele*, a nipple, by reason of its papillose surface, and *sporothricum*, the spores bearing hairy filaments. (See Pl. 4, fig. 16.) The microscopic view of a morsel of sporothricum, (vide fig. 16) is here given very highly magnified. The effects of all these pass by one designation, dry-rot. I will now describe its progress. The first signs are small white points from which a filamentous substance radiates parallel with the surface of the wood. This is spawn, which, as it gains strength, insinuates itself into any crevices, however minute, and the threads are so fine that they pass between the tubes from which the wood is organized, and forcing them apart destroy all cohesion. (See Pl. 4, fig. 17.) This diagram shows these threads from one of the polypori. Sometimes various spawns interlace and form a tough stratum; and the rapidity and force of increase is such as to cause, under favorable circumstances, the total destruction of the wood. From the experiments previously described on the growth of fungals, you will perceive that the acidulation of the fermenting sap promotes their growth. Kyanizing, or the application of corrosive sublimate, has been resorted to as a preventive. An experiment may be made to show its effects: a solution of fish-glue will be found to yield fungi in abundance, but if corrosive sublimate be mixed with it none will appear, and the same result will follow additions of certain preparations of copper and other mineral poisons. Oak felled in the spring, when full of sap, is almost sure to have dry-rot; therefore that which is destined for farm erections should be cut in winter, for otherwise the only chance of stopping the appearance of the fungi is to substitute

some poison by saturation for its proper juices, or to force them out by an objectionable pressure. Immersion in water is beneficial, but heat applied to dry wood only hastens the malady. In Brest dry-rot is said to be unknown, and all the timber used in its yards is kept in a creek of the harbor.

VI. Fungi of a different kind from any yet described follow the British farmer into his dairy, and interfere with his household economy. *Penicillium*, and *aspergill*, are two terms applied to some of them, because in their microscopic appearance, given in the delineation before you, they resemble sprinkling brushes. (See Pl. 4, figs. 18 and 19.) Fig. 18 represents the penicillium very highly magnified. Aspergill is shown in Pl. 4, fig. 19. They are sufficiently indicative of their names. *Penicillium* is the mould on hay, as was mentioned and is found on bread, and also in the inside of casks; and there is reason to believe its spores poisonous, for two coopers who entered a great tun, covered with this mould, to clean it, inhaled them, and were seized with violent pains in the head, giddiness, and vomiting, which only yielded to severe medical treatment. A penicillium is the mould of milk, and we have here a magnified representation of its development. (See Pl. 4, fig. 20.) The penicillium may be here noticed developing itself from the mass of the mould. If these moulds appear much in the dairy or on the bread kept in it, the best remedy is washing the walls with chloride of lime, which it is important to know, as milk often suffers greatly in this way. Foreign badly made cheese has an unpleasant mould in brilliant scarlet patches; but in England the principal one on cheese is an innocent mould called *torula*, from *torus*, a bed, from its coming in layers. I may here just observe that the vinegar plant, as it is called, is in its advanced state a penicillium; and the beer fungus has been called torula; but before we decide the latter, we must see a regular fructification in air. There are hundreds of non-productive spawns for want of air and light, as, for example, the strange forms which diffuse themselves in cellars, which are incomplete developments.

You will permit me to state in this place, that the fungi on stored fruit are a *torula*, a *penicillium*, common fruit *mucor*, and a mould like the first stage of the erysiphe. Harting asserts that he has actually propagated the potato-disease from the brown matter in mouldy apples and pears, and it is remarkable that some ingenious experiment of Mr. Berkely, on the growth of bunt, lead to show that its propagation may arise from mere grumous matter in the spores, which proves that many of our theories are immature. The experiments were thus made:—Wheat seeds were immersed in a mixture of water and the spores of bunt. A curious mould with conjugated spores sprung up on the spores of bunt. The wheat was sown, and the plants came up infected; but no communication could be traced between the cells and the shoots thrown out by the spores; no intrusion of the *mycelium* developed

by the spores into the wheat could be discovered. The inference is, that the fine contents of the spores propagate the fungus; but this is quite opposed to our general idea of the growth of fungals.

VII. I will lastly touch on the facts now established relative to the fungi attacking animal tissues, which are very surprising. Sapy meat has always a fungus something analogous to what is called the yeast fungus. This fungus is a mass of molecules, probably an early state of the same that is called vinegar plant, the last stage of which has been stated to be a penicillium. What are called *sclerotia* from *skleros*, hard, appear in animal matter under particular circumstances; but these are only states of other fungi, for even *agarics* have been known to spring from them. The fungus of the West Indian wasp, of the caterpillar of New Zealand, and the muscardine of the silkworm, are all well-known examples of fungi attacking living animals. The last is easily propagated by inoculating healthy caterpillars, which I mention to show that a fungal disease may be conveyed from one animal to another in a state of health. I believe a more accurate knowledge of such facts will be ultimately of great use in investigating certain diseases prevalent among animals of the farm, and hitherto inexplicable. Sclerotia have been found in bad fractures, but they are not parasites: true parasitic animal fungi grow only on the skin or mucous membranes.

M. Robin published in 1847 a most curious account of the vegetable matters growing on living mammalia, which he classes into two divisons—those of the skin, and those of the mucous membranes. The mucous membranes of the digestive canal and of the lungs are subject to their attacks; nor is the stomach free. All herbivorous animals are liable to moulds in the digestive canal, very like the yeast fungus, but larger; yet it is confined to them, and never found in carnivora, birds, or reptiles. A penicillium of birds is tolerably well known; and pheasants, fowls, and pigeons are occasionally the prey of a mould as yet imperfectly described. An *aspergill* is found in eggs; and that found in the air-cells of the lungs of the eider-duck has been often noticed. Parasitic animal fungi yield, it is said, to sulphuric acid; whence a hint may be obtained as to remedy, but I wish to speak with due caution on these novel investigations. Attempts have been made to innoculate dead animals with these fungi; they have entirely failed: the life of the animal is essential to their growth, the conditions of which seem generally to be imperfect states of respiration or nutrition, or irregularity. There seems to be a moment when the powers of assimilation flag, and then the fungi step in and appropriate the nourishment designed for the system. It may be the same with apparently healthy plants. We may here have the first ward to the key to many a hidden secret as to the ailments of the animals of the British farm.

VIII. I have now completed my humble attempt to give a popu-

lar outline of the chief parasitic fungi of the farms of England, which only require simpler names to be easily understood; and the farmer must learn to distinguish them from the diseases of the superficial tissues. It is a subject well suited to farmers' clubs, where good botanists and microscopists might be induced to attend with their instruments, and give simple explanations. Let it be remembered that simplicity is the handmaid of all useful science, whose truths are only impeded by needless grandiloquence. I can say by experience, that endeavors to propagate it will be found good subordinate auxiliaries to the higher aims of men of my own sacred calling; and while we see that there is not a thing so small or so apparently mean, but that it sparkles with some beam of the skill of its great Maker, I conceive that it befits the office I bear to show that the nobler teaching of Divine Wisdom by things revealed does not tend to deface, but to elevate our conception of God's perfection in things created. This earth was not made to be neglected, nor man to be unobservant; and if these unpretending gleamings I have gathered in my few moments of leisure shall this day have proved in the least degree acceptable to the present audience, or generally of any interest to the British farmer, of the kindness of whose disposition I have had more proofs than I have deserved, I shall rejoice in the honor conferred upon me by being allowed the privilege of addressing you.

Article III.

MINERAL WEALTH OF MISSOURI.

The primary elements of national wealth seem to have been dealt out to Missouri on a larger scale than to any other political division of the earth of equal area.

The deposite of cannel coal recently explored in Callaway county, is not less remarkable than the Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob, which have been long regarded as amongst the greatest wonders of the mineral kingdom. Should this coal be found useful as fuel in smelting and manufacturing the iron located in its immediate neighborhood, these two minerals combined will constitute a source of wealth not less important to the State than profitable to the proprietors.

It affords us much gratification to learn that the proprietors are progressing with their improvements with a view to extensive operations. Should they be able to deliver cannel coal at St. Louis at a reasonable price, compared to that of the bituminous coal now in use, it will

doubtless be adopted for family purposes to the exclusion, in a great measure, of all other kinds.

We notice that the enterprise is in the hands of Philadelphians. It is well: the people of Pennsylvania understand the value of coal and iron, and we trust that the success of the "Callaway Mining and Manufacturing Company" will induce others of that land of industry and enlightened enterprise, to transfer their operations to our State.

The coal, iron, and lead of Missouri may be regarded as inexhaustible; and we are pleased to observe that since the California excitement has subsided, they are beginning to attract more attention than at any previous period. The production of lead in the south-eastern part of the State—the old lead district—is believed to be on the increase, while several new mines have lately been opened in the south-west. We recently noticed the arrival of three flat boats in New Orleans freighted with lead from Moseley's mines, in Newton county; and a late number of the Boonville Observer notices the arrival of several tons of lead in that city from a mine recently opened in the same county, by E. H. Hubbard.

Our railroad improvements, as they progress, will doubtless give an impetus to mining which will in due time be followed by Manufactories established for the purpose of working the raw material, and if no important change should take place in the monetary affairs of the country, the industrial pursuits of Missouri will present a new phase within a few years from the present date.

This is the time for those who are looking to mining in Missouri as a pursuit, to secure favorable locations before they get into the hands of speculators, who will neither improve them nor permit others to do so on reasonable terms.

We copy the following description of the coal and iron deposites owned by the Callaway Mining and Manufacturing Company from a late number of the Missouri Telegraph.

THE CALLAWAY MINING AND MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

This company owns about three thousand acres of land, lying from four to five miles from the Missouri river, near Cote Sans Dessein. It was chartered in 1847, and is composed altogether of Philadelphians of capital and means. Since the date of the charter they have been prospecting and shafting to ascertain fully the extent and richness of the mineral resources of the lands now owned by them, and taking the preliminary steps for connecting the mines with the river by railroad, and for building a depot and an agency. Friday and Saturday last, we spent in visiting Cote Sans Dessein and the coal and iron mines of this company—and were exceedingly well pleased. "The Village" is upon ground several feet above

the highest floods of the river—and has an excellent landing. Twenty-two acres have been acquired by and admeasured to the company for the purpose of depot, agency and the like, and embrace a good deal of the Cote Sans Dessein Hill. The track of the railroad has been located and is five miles long, connecting the Mastadon Bank with the river. We rode along the entire track and found the grounds to be well adapted to the purpose and should think that the road could be built at very small costs. We saw what we have never witnessed before in this State, and that is an active and vigorous breaking of turf for a railroad. About two and a half miles of the track has been trimmed and cleared of all trees and brush, and the larger portion of it graded, ready for the rails and their particular foundation. Mr. I. S. Clark, the agent of the company, is forwarding the grade with dispatch; having many Irish and English laborers engaged at the work. He has Baker's circular saw mill about mid-way of the track preparing the necessary lumber for the road. Cannel coal and iron ore are found in the greatest abundance on the lands of the company. The former is in a purer state and in more extensive masses than any where known to the world. The half cannot be told. Go and see, and you'll stand mute with astonishment at the bounteous provision of nature. Geologists, we believe determine the quantity by the dip and the thickness of the veins—as well as the extent of country, the coal seem to occupy from the multiplicity of the croppings out.

If this be a safe rule, we should readily say, that a region of country several miles square, embracing all the lands of this company, must be entirely underlaid with immense fields of the richest cannel coal. We visited the "Mammoth Bank" and found that here the coal crops out in a bluff bank of some two hundred feet in length and at different points of a thickness from three to ten feet. A shaft had been sunk here and the vein found to have a depth of twenty-four and a half feet. A quarter of a mile South East, and three quarters of a mile and a mile and a half west of the "Mammoth Bank," coal crops out and appears in large quantities. These latter we did not see. But three and a half miles west is the "Mastodon Bank" and a great one it is. It has been shafted to the depth of eighty-five feet; 11 by 11; seventy-five and a half of which is the pure cannel coal—a thickness of vein without an equal in the world. Drifts were run thirty-three feet south, eleven feet east, and eleven feet north in order to ascertain the dip and extent of the mines. Near the mouth of the shaft lay some 15,000 bushels of coal—much of it in large blocks. We must confess that whilst looking upon this immense pile of such charming fuel, we became exceedingly covetous. Who would not? This coal crops out at other points we did not visit. The "Mammoth" and "Mastodon" satisfied us that these coal fields are without a parallel, and may be mined for ages and not be exhausted. It is of remarkable purity—without any intermixture of lead, zinc

or sulphur. Sulphur, when found, forms the base of the beds of coal, but is not intermixed. From the evidences we saw, we should think, that iron ore in great quantities lies near these cannel coal banks. In a hundred yards of the Mammoth Bank, this ore of a rich quality appears on the surface. At the distance of six hundred yards north east from the Mastodon Bank, this ore appears on the lands of Josias Dixon. No examination has been made of its extent. About one and a half miles west from the Mastodon, on lands of the company, iron is found in immense quantities—lies on the surface in great blocks. This bank has been opened in several places and found to be of great extent and of very rich quality.—This vein has been traced a half mile and is over a hundred feet in width on the surface of the ground. Iron ore appears at many other points in the vicinity; which we did not see. There cannot be a doubt but that the iron resources of the company are quite as extensive as the cannel coal. Wood and limestone are in great abundance on the lands of the company. This coal will no doubt supercede all other coals for foundry purposes, raising steam, making gas and for family use.

The object of this company is the mining of coal and the manufacture of iron, and surely they could not desire materials of a richer quality or in greater abundance, or a more flattering prospect of wealth and fortunes as the result of their enterprise. Nature has done her duty—been extravagantly liberal. Energy and industry may do the rest and realize immense riches. These mines are twelve miles from Jefferson city, seventeen from Fulton and one hundred and twenty from St. Louis; and being as it were on the margin of our great river, there are the best facilities for reaching any market whatever. With such materials and facilities, this company would evidently neglect the great advantages they have secured, were they not to urge forward with dispatch this great improvement.

The foregoing account is corroberated by C. H. Harden, who visited the mines in company with the Editor of the Telegraph. Several affidavits and certificats are appended to the account. We give the following extracts, as affording a more particular description of the premises, from the affidavit of Josias Dixon.

"The principal shaft is sunk to the depth of about eighty-eight feet, and in extent North and South I have seen it tested about one hundred feet in the direction I supposed the vein to run and the strata in said shaft to be about 75 feet; I further state that I reside near said Coal Mines and have seen the cropping out of the same pure Cannel Coal Mines which is found in said shaft for several miles in extent around said Mines. I have also seen considerable Iron ore, and know of several different veins of Iron in the vicinity of said Coal Mines, to what thickness or extent said

Iron ore is I am not able to say, but believe the Iron is, as well as the Coal, very extensive, if not inexhaustible."

FROM THE AFFIDAVIT OF THREE MINERS.

"Having been engaged in the Mining business in England, we were employed by the Callaway Mining and Manufacturing Company in sinking a shaft at their Coal Mines in Callaway county, Missouri, known as the Mastadon Coal Mines. Said shaft was ten feet in diameter and to the depth of eighty-eight feet, we found pure Cannel Coal in a horizontal strata in said shaft, seventy-five feet thick and from drifts made North and South about one hundred feet, and East and West about 30 feet without the Coal failing in extent.—We believe the said Coal bank to be of the best quality and inexhaustible. This Coal bank is about five miles from the Missouri river and the same to which said company is now progressing in building a Railroad from the said bank to their depot on the Missouri river."

In Professor Johnson's report to the Navy Department of the United States on American coals, we find at page 539 the following analysis of a specimen from the Osage river. The specimens which we have seen from Callaway county are, as far as we are capable of judging, in all respects similar to the Osage cannel coal.

"A specimen from the Osage river, Missouri, had, in its dry state, a specific gravity less than 1, as it floated on water. When allowed to imbibe water, it sank, and was, when fully saturated, found to have a specific gravity of 1.2. It contained of—

Moisture expelled at 230°	1.67	per cent.
Other volatile matter	41.83	"
Fixed carbon	51.16	"
Earthy matter	5.34	"
	100.	

A trial for sulphur gave 0.482 per cent. of that material.

From the above analysis, the volatile is to the fixed combustible as 1 : 1.233. An analysis by the chromate of lead and the chlorate of potash, proved the combustible matter of this specimen to consist of—

Carbon	81.855 = 14.642	atoms.
Hydrogen	6.168 = 6.168	"
Oxygen	11.977 = 1.497	"
	100.	

From this analysis, the computation of evaporative power, as-

sumed to be proportionate to the carbon, will give a result of 10.256 to 1 of combustible, and of 9.66 to 1 of the raw coal."

This analysis will enable those conversant with the properties of coal, to judge of the value of an article possessing qualities similar to the specimen.

Article IV.

NORTH MISSOURI RAILROAD.

The General Assembly of Missouri, at its late session, incorporated a company with authority to construct a Railroad from St. Charles to the northern boundary of the State, and we had reason to expect that before this the directors, appointed by that body, would have taken steps to organize the company and bring the merits of the work fairly before the country.

Those who have read the Western Journal from its commencement, must be satisfied that we are not inclined to advocate the prosecution of works of internal improvement to an extent that would be likely to produce pecuniary embarrassment on the part of either the State or its citizens: but we have constantly been, and are yet, the advocates of a system of improvement calculated to develop the rich resources of Missouri and afford to its inhabitants more extensive means of social intercourse, than they have hitherto enjoyed. Such works can never be accomplished without the active and manly efforts of those more immediately interested in their benefits. Mere legislative enactments creating corporations with authority to construct railroads or other works of public improvement, are totally fruitless unless carried out by the application of means equal to the ends proposed.

If our friends of North Missouri desire to enjoy the advantages, pecuniary and social, which accrue from railroads, they must put their own shoulders to the wheel. Let the directors of the North Missouri railroad appointed by the legislature, organize and, at least, survey the route. This will bring the merits of their work to the knowledge of our own citizens and to the capitalists of other parts of the country; and, moreover, it will place them in a condition to ask of Congress an appropriation of lands in aid of the work. When we look to the vast area of fertile land, situate between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, extending to, and embracing, the valley of the Red river of the North, and reflect how small a portion of this extensive region is the property of individuals, we feel fully persuaded that no railroad yet projected within

the territory of the United States, possesses stronger claims to aid from the General Government, than that from the Missouri river to the southern boundary of Iowa; for it must be regarded as the commencement of a great work which shall in time connect the Gulf of Mexico with Hudson's Bay, passing over at least five hundred miles of land, now the property of the General Government.

It is so much the custom of the friends of every scheme of public improvement, to affirm that their own particular project possesses higher claimes than all others to public favor, that arguments in behalf of any work of improvement have lost their force on the public mind. And therefore, we simply ask our readers to examine a map of the United States; and, tracing a line from the Missouri river, beginning at any point below Jefferson City, to the valley of the Red river of Hudson's Bay, compare its utility with that of other public works which have been proposed east of the Rocky mountains. Having made such comparison, we know what their opinions would be, provided the country was inhabited throughout the line; but many will conclude that it will be soon enough to commence the work when the country shall have been settled. But we are of opinion that, begin when they may, the settlement of the country will keep pace with the progress of the road.

Were the route located from St. Charles to the Iowa line, the future settlement of that State would be made in a good degree with reference to the continuance of the work further north and by the time the Missouri section shall have been completed, the settlement and resources of the central and western parts of Iowa will furnish sufficient business to make the work profitable to the stockholders.

The distance from St. Charles to the Iowa line by the route proposed, would be about 200 miles. By reference to a communication published in the Western Journal in December, 1850, from the pen of B. A. Alderson, a civil Engineer of highly respectable attainments, we find that the route designated by him passes through eleven counties in Missouri; which, according to the census of 1850, contain 87,308 inhabitants, a number which would, in our opinion, be doubled within five years after the commencement of the road. It is useless at this day to discuss the benefits of railroads: they are sufficiently understood by every man of common intelligence in every part of the country; but it is difficult, especially in the newer States, to bring communities to act in concert. When this point is attained, the accomplishment of any object which the public interest demands is rendered comparatively easy. And we are fully persuaded that if the citizens of North Missouri will unite upon this work and devote themselves to its accomplishment with the earnestness and zeal which have distinguished the efforts of citizens of other parts of the country on similar occasions, the enterprise can be accomplished without drawing upon their own resources beyond the means necessary to make

a survey, and pay such expenses as may be incurred by agents employed to bring the subject fairly before the country. For should Congress make an appropriation of public lands in aid of the work equal to that granted to the Central Railroad of Illinois, there is not the slightest reason to doubt that capitalists may be found, who will cheerfully undertake the entire work. Indeed, we should not be surprised if a bonus could be obtained for the privilege.

A glance at the consequences of such a result is surely sufficient to incite the most lethargic individual to action. It would bring several millions of dollars into the State to be disbursed in the vicinity of the work; afford a market for a large quantity of stock, provisions and other agricultural products, while the work was progressing; increase the value of real estate near the line far above its present price; and, in addition to all these benefits, establish the most speedy and convenient means of social intercourse which have yet been discovered by man.

We are unwilling to believe that amongst the one hundred thousand inhabitants, immediately interested in this enterprise, there cannot be found individuals possessing a sufficient degree of public spirit, intelligence and influence to awaken the public mind to a just sense of its importance, and induce the citizens to move in the matter without delay.

The name of the individual who shall take the lead in this great enterprise and conduct it to a successful issue, will be entitled to a place in the annals of the western States not less conspicuous or enduring, than that occupied by De Wit Clinton in the history of New York.

Article VI.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF GREAT BRITAIN.*

[From Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine.]

"The apparent contradiction," says the *Edinburgh Review*, "between the vast amount of unrelieved misery in the country, and the vast amount of energetic benevolence now existing in this country, which strikes so many with despair, inspires us, on the contrary, with the most sanguine hopes; because, in that benevolence, we see ample means of remedying nearly all our social evils,

*After the leading article of this Number was sent to press, we met with the following essay in Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine for March, 1851, and conceiving that the facts and arguments which it contains are calculated to sustain our own views respecting the causes which limit the increase of population, we are induced to transfer it to the pages of the Western Journal. The statistics which it contains, are well worth the space occupied by the essay. Editors.

—means heretofore impotent solely because misplaced. We agree with the socialists in holding that the world can never have been intended to be, and will not long remain, what it is. It cannot be that the same intellect which has rung from nature her most hidden secrets, which has triumphed over the most gigantic material obstructions, which has 'exhausted worlds and then imagined new;' which has discovered and described laws operating in regions of space separate from us by a distance so vast that human imagination cannot figure it and arithmetical language can hardly express it, should not, when fairly applied to social and administrative science, be competent to rectify our errors and to smoothe our path —unless, indeed, society take refuge in the dreary creed, which shall never be ours, that the problem before us is insoluble, and the wretchedness around us inherent and incurable."

We entirely concur in these eloquent and just observations, though the honest and candid admissions they contain sound rather strange when coming from a journal which has, for nearly half-a-century, been the most strenuous, and not the least able, supporter of the system which has terminated in these woful results. We concur with this author in thinking, that it was never intended by Providence that things in this country should be as they now are; and that it is impossible they can long continue so. Sooner or later, if the premonitory symptoms of our diseased state continue to be disregarded by our rulers, and the influential part of the nation who now determine our policy, as they have been for a great number of years back, some terrible catastrophe will arise, like that in Ireland by the failure of the potato crop in 1846, which, amidst an appalling and perhaps unprecedented amount of human suffering, is in course of rectifying many of the social evils under which that ill-starred country has so long labored. We narrowly escaped such a catastrophe on occasion of the great monetary crisis of October, 1847, by far the most serious and widespread which Great Britain has ever known; and so much was the nation in its vital resources weakened by that calamity, and so wearing-out and grievous are the causes of evil still operating amongst us, that it is much to be feared that the catastrophe we anticipate will not be deferred beyond the next of the periodical monetary crises with which the country is now so regularly afflicted.

What renders our present social condition so alarming and depressing to the contemplative mind is, that the evils which are so widespread through society have only increased with the advance of the nation in general industry, accumulated capital, and mechanical power; and at a time when universal and unprecedented exertions have been made both for the religious and moral education of the working-classes, the improvement of their habits, and the extension of their information. The most superficial observer must be aware what astonishing progress we have made since 1815.

Our exports and imports have tripled—our shipping doubled*—our population advanced fully 50 per cent. Our agriculture has kept pace with this astonishing increase, insomuch that, down to the commencement of five bad years in succession, in 1836, followed by Free Trade in 1842 and 1846, our imports of wheat and flour had sunk to a *hundreth-part* of the food of our people. At no former period, in England's or the world's history, were such efforts made by energetic and philanthropic individuals to stem the progress of public and private disaster, or such noble and even heroic sacrifices made by the State to assuage, where it was most aggravated, the intensity of private suffering. At one period Government gave £20.000,000 to compensate the planters in the West Indies for Negro Emancipation; at another £10,000,000, to relieve the effects of famine and Irish improvidence. The efforts made in the cause of education, religious instruction, church accommodation, the relief of pauperism, the elevation of the standard of comfort, and the improvement of the habits of the poor, have been innumerable, systematic, and unwearied.

In Scotland, a new great sect of Presbyterians has grown up more suited than the Establishment to the inclinations of a large part of the people, and they have, in three years, built and provided for *eight hundred* new places of worship, at a cost of above £1,500,000. In Glasgow alone, *thirty-two* have been erected, at a cost of £107,000! besides *fifteen*, erected a few years before, by subscription of persons connected with the Establishment. The prodigious efforts made by the dignitaries and pastors of the Church of England, to extend the sphere and increase the utility of their Establishment, are known to all the world, and have extorted the reluctant applause even of the most inveterate of their opponents. All other religious persuasions have done the same: Roman Catholics, Methodists, Wesleyans, Dissenters of all sorts,

* Years.	Exports. Official value.	Imports. Official value.	Shipping. Tons inwards.
1822	42,236,533	29,432,376	2,519,044
1823	43,803,472	34,591,260	2,596,760
1824	48,785,551	36,056,551	2,559,587
1836	65,926,702	44,586,741	3,002,875
1837	69,939,389	45,952,551	3,149,152
1838	73,831,550	49,362,811	3,149,168
1846	132,286,345	75,953,875	6,091,052
1847	126,157,919	90,921,866	7,196,033
1848	132,904,407	93,547,134	5,579,461
1849	164,539,504	105,874,607	6,071,269

—*Parliamentary Tables.*

have vied with each other in zeal and efforts to extend their respective adherents, and augment the number and respectability of their places of worship. Education has shared in the general movement; and although Government has yet done little, the number of voluntary schools established in most parts of the country almost exceeds belief. At the same time, the average poor-rates of England have for the last ten years been about £6,000,000. Scotland has got a more efficient one than the cautious administration of the old law had permitted, which already expends about £500,000 yearly on the relief of indigence; and Ireland has got a new one, which at its greatest distress expended above £2,000,000 in a year, and still dispenses upwards of £1,500,000 annually. Yet, in the midst of all this prodigious increase of national industry, religious zeal, and philanthropic activity, the condition of the greater part of our working classes has been daily getting worse, and was never perhaps, as a whole, so bad as in this year, when, in consequence of Continental pacification, Bank discounts at 2½ per cent., and a great influx of California gold, prices of manufactured articles have risen 20 per cent., and the great manufacturing towns are in a state of general prosperity. Ample evidence of all this will be brought forward in the sequel of this essay.

Notwithstanding all this, we do not despair either of the human race or of the fortunes and social condition of this country. We are firm believers in the doctrine, derived equally from natural and revealed religion, that the greater part of the evils, individual and social, of this life are derived from the effects of human selfishness, folly, or wickedness, and that it is sin which has brought death to nations not less than individuals. Barring some calamities which are obviously beyond the reach of human remedy—such as sickness, the death of relations or friends, and external disasters, as famine or pestilence—there is scarcely an ill which now afflicts mankind which may not be distinctly traced to human selfishness or folly in the present or some preceding generation. That God will visit the sins of the fathers upon the children is indeed as loudly proclaimed in the history of man as ever it was among the thunders of Mount Sinai. But, assuming this to be the principle of the Divine government of mankind, we are confident we are within bounds when we say that four-fifths, perhaps nine-tenths, of the social and private evils which now afflict humanity, are the direct consequences of selfishness or folly in this or some recently preceding generation. Every attentive observer of the fate of individuals or families around him must see that this is the case in private life; and a very little attention alone is required to convince one that to the same cause is to be ascribed four-fifths of the social evils, great as they are, which all feel to be now so overwhelming.

We propose, first, to establish the fact that, amidst all the boasted and really astonishing increase of our national industry, the suf-

fering and misery of the working-classes has constantly, on an average of years, gone on increasing; and then to consider to what causes this most alarming and disheartening state of things is to be ascribed. To prove the first, it is sufficient to refer to three authentic sources of information—the records of emigration, of crime, and of pauperism, for the last twenty-eight years.

From the table given below, it appears that while, in the year 1826, immediately following the dreadful monetary crisis of December 1825,—by far the severest which had *then* been felt—the total emigration from the British Islands was under twenty-one thousand; in the year 1849, being the fourth year of Free Trade, and in its last six months one of great commercial activity, it had reached *the enormous and unprecedented amount of* THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND! In twenty-five years of almost ceaseless Liberal government, and carrying out the principles, social and political, of the Political Economists, the number of persons driven into exile had increased *fifteen-fold*. So extraordinary and decisive a proof of the progressive increase of suffering in a people is perhaps not to be found in the whole annals of mankind. The emigration-returns for 1850 have not yet been made up, but that they will exhibit a result not less striking and woful than the preceding years may be judged of by the facts, that the emigration from Liverpool, which in 1849 was 154,400, had risen in 1850 to 174,260; and that the emigrants who landed at New York alone, in 1850, were 312,796—of whom 116,552 were Irish, and 28,125 English subjects, the remainder being chiefly Scotch and Germans.

We say, and say advisedly, that this prodigious flood of emigrants were, for the most part, *driven into exile* by suffering not tempted into it by hope, and that its progressive increase is the most decisive proof of the enhanced misery and suffering of the working classes. The slightest consideration of the last column

of the table below* must demonstrate this. Every known and deplored year of suffering has been immediately followed by a great increase in the number of emigrants in the next, or some subsequent years. Thus, in the year 1825, the total emigration was only 14,891; but the monetary crisis of December in that year raised it to 20,900 in the next year. In the year 1830, the last of the Duke of Wellington's administration, the emigration was 56,907; but in the two next years, being those of Reform agitation and consequent penury, these numbers were almost doubled: they rose to 83,160 in 1831, and to 103,140 in 1832. With the fine harvests and consequent prosperity of 1833 and 1834, they sank to 44,478 but the bad seasons of 1838, 1839, and 1840, made them rapidly rise again, until they became,

* EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE TWENTY-FIVE YEARS FROM 1825 TO 1849.

Years.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Australian Colonies and New Zealand.	All other places.	TOTAL.
1825	8,741	5,551	485	114	14,891
1826	12,818	7,063	903	116	20,900
1827	12,648	14,526	715	114	28,003
1828	12,084	12,817	1,056	135	26,092
1829	13,307	15,678	2,016	197	31,198
1830	30,574	24,887	1,242	204	56,907
1831	58,067	23,418	1,561	114	83,160
1832	66,339	32,872	3,733	196	103,140
1833	28,808	29,109	4,093	517	62,527
1834	40,060	33,074	2,800	288	76,222
1835	15,573	25,720	1,860	325	44,478
1836	34,226	37,774	3,124	293	75,417
1837	29,884	36,770	5,054	326	72,034
1838	4,577	14,332	14,021	292	33,222
1839	12,658	33,536	15,786	227	62,207
1840	32,293	40,642	15,850	1,958	90,743
1841	38,164	45,017	32,626	2,786	118,592
1842	54,123	63,852	8,534	1,825	128,344
1843	23,518	28,335	3,478	1,881	57,212
1844	22,924	43,660	2,229	1,873	70,686
1845	31,803	58,538	830	2,330	93,501
1846	43,439	82,239	2,347	1,826	129,851
1847	109,680	142,154	4,949	1,487	258,270
1848	31,065	188,233	23,904	4,887	248,089
1849	41,367	219,450	32,091	6,590	299,498
	808,740	1,260,247	185,286	30,911	2,285,184

Average annual emigration from the United Kingdom for the last twenty-five years, 91,407.

1840	90,743
1841	118,592
1842	128,342

The Railway Mania and artificial excitement of 1843 and 1844 brought down these numbers to *one half*—they were 57,212 and 70,686 in these two years successively. But the Currency Laws of 1844 and 1845, and Free Trade of 1846 soon more than *quadrupled* these numbers, and they have *never since receded*, but, on the contrary, rapidly increased ever since. The numbers were:—

Currency Acts, 1845,	93,501
Free Trade, 1846,	129,851
Irish Famine, 1847,	258,270
Free Trade, 1848,	248,089
Free Trade, 1849,	299,498

More convincing proof that emigration is, for the most part, the result of general distress, and that the intensity and wide spread of that distress is to be measured by its increase cannot possibly be imagined.

In the next place the criminal records for the same period, since 1822, demonstrate in a manner equally decisive, that amidst all our advances in civilization, wealth, and productive industry, the causes producing an increase of crime have been equally active; and that, abreast of the distress which drove such prodigious and increasing multitudes into exile have advanced the social evils which have, in an equal ratio, multiplied the criminals among those who remain at home.

From the table quoted below, it appears that, since the year 1822, serious crime over the whole empire, has advanced fully 300 per cent.; while the numbers of the people, during the same period, have not increased more than 30 per cent., which of itself is a very great and most surprising increase for an old state. It has advanced from 27,000 to 75,000. In other words, serious crime

during the last twenty-five years, has advanced TEN TIMES as fast as the numbers of the people.*

The same table is equally valuable in another point of view, as demonstrating, that it is to a general and progressive increase of *distress* that this deplorable result has been immediately followed in the next and succeeding ones by a sudden start in crime, which has again as regularly receded, when a returning gleam of prosperity has for a time illuminated the prospects of the working-classes in the community. Thus, the dreadful monetary crisis of December 1825 was followed next year by a considerable increase of commitments: they rose from 31,828 to 38,071. The numbers again fell to 33,273 and 36,009 in 1829 and 1830, which were years of comparative comfort. The Reform agitation, and conse-

* TABLE showing the Commitments for Serious Crimes in England, Scotland, and Ireland, from 1822 to 1849, both inclusive:—

Years.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	TOTAL.
1822	12,241	1,691	13,251	27,183
1823	12,263	1,733	14,632	28,628
1824	13,698	1,802	15,258	30,748
1825	14,437	1,876	15,515	31,828
1826	16,164	1,999	16,418	34,481
1827	17,924	2,116	18,031	30,071
1828	16,564	2,024	14,683	33,273
1829	18,675	2,063	15,271	36,009
1830	18,107	2,329	15,794	36,230
1831	19,647	2,451	16,192	38,290
1832	20,829	2,431	16,056	39,316
1833	20,072	2,564	17,819	40,453
1834	22,451	2,691	24,381	49,523
1835	20,731	2,867	21,205	44,803
1836	20,984	2,922	23,891	47,797
1837	23,612	3,126	14,804	41,452
1838	23,094	3,418	15,723	42,635
1839	24,443	3,409	26,392	54,244
1840	27,187	3,872	23,883	54,892
1841	27,760	3,562	20,796	52,118
1842	31,389	4,189	21,186	56,684
1843	29,591	3,615	20,126	53,332
1844	26,542	3,575	19,448	49,565
1845	24,303	3,537	16,696	44,536
1846	25,107	4,069	18,492	47,668
1847	28,883	4,635	31,209	64,677
1848	30,349	4,909	38,522	73,780
1849	27,806	4,357	41,982	74,162

quent distress of 1831 and 1832, raised them again to 49,529 in 1834; while the Joint-stock mania and fine harvests of 1835 lowered it to 44,803. The bad harvests, great importation, and consequent monetary crisis of 1839 and 1840 raised them most materially; they amounted to 54,244 and 54,892 in those years respectively. The fine harvests and Railway mania of 1844 and 1845 lowered them to 49,565 and 44,536; but the Irish Famine and Freetrade measures of 1846, followed, as they necessarily were, by the dreadful monetary crisis of October 1847, raised them again to an unprecedented amount, from which they have never since receded. In 1848, they were 73,780; in 1849, 74,162; of which last year, no less than 41,980 were in Ireland, being nearly 4000 more than 1848—albeit the harvest of 1849 was very fine, and the preceding year had been the year of the Irish rebellion, and when that country might be presumed to be still laboring under the effects of the famine of autumn 1846.

The poor's rate from 1822 to 1849* affords an equally conclu-

* TABLE showing the Poor's Rates of England and Wales with their Population and the amount in Quarters of Grain in every year, from 1822 to 1849, both inclusive:—

Years.	Poor's Rates.	Population.	Prices of Wheat.		Amount in Quarters of Wheat
			s.	*d.*	
1822	£6.358.702	12.318.310	43	3	2.940.440
1823	5.772.958	12.508.956	51	9	2.231.091
1824	5.736.898	12.699.098	62	0	1.850.612
1825	5.786.989	12.881.906	66	6	1.740.447
1826	5.928.501	13.056.931	55	11	2.983.222
1827	6.441.088	13.242.019	56	9	2.269.987
1828	6.298.000	13.441.913	60	5	2.084.855
1829	6.332 410	13.620.701	66	3	1.911.671
1830	6.829.042	13.811.467	64	3	2.125.772
1831	6.798.888	13.897.187	66	4	2.049.916
1832	7.036.968	14.105.645	58	8	2.398.966
1833	6.790.799	14.317.229	52	11	2.566.601
1834	6.317.255	14.531.957	46	2	2.736.717
1835†	5.526.418	14.703.002	44	2	2.501.528
1836	4.717.630	14.904.456	39	5	2.393.723
1837	4.044.741	15.105.909	52	6	1.540.853
1838	4.123.604	15.307.363	55	3	1.492.684
1839	4.421.712	15.508.816	69	4	1.275.494
1840	4.576.965	15.710.270	68	5	1.336.340
1841	4.760.929	15.911.725	65	3	1.459.288
1842	4.911.498	16.141.808	64	0	1.534.843
1843	5.208.027	16.371.892	54	4	1.917.665
1844	4.976.093	16.601.975	51	5	1.935.595
1845	5.039.708	16.824.351	50	10	1.976.354
1846	4.954.204	17.032.471	54	8	1.801.528
1847	5.298.787	17.426.321	69	9	1.513.939
1848	6.180.764	17.649.622	50	6	2.423.436
1849	5.792.963	17.862.431	44	3	2.633.166
1850			40	2	

Poor's-Rate Report, 1349; and PORTER, 90, 3d ed. The five last years' prices are not from Mr. Porter's work, where they are obviously wrong, but from *Par. Pp.* 1850, No. 460.

† New Poor-Law came into operation.

sive proof of the steady increase of pauperism—varying, of course, like the crime and emigration, with the prosperity and suffering of particular years, but exhibiting on the whole a great and most portentous increase. This appears even when it is measured in money; but still more strikingly and convincingly when measured in grain—the true test both of its amount and its weight, as by far the greatest part of it is laid out in the purchase of food for the paupers, and the price of that food is an index to the ability of the land to bear it. It is to be recollected that the new Poor Law, which was introduced to check the rapid and alarming increase in the poor's rates of England and Wales, was passed in 1834 and came into full operation in 1835, and has since continued unaltered. It certainly effected a great reduction at first; but that it was not lasting, and was speedily altered by the Free-Trade measures, is decisively proved by the following table, furnished by Mr. Porter. The in-door and out-door paupers of England since 1840 have stood thus to 1848:—

1840	1,199,529
1841	1,299,048
1842	1,427,187
1843	1,539,490
1844	1,477,561
1845	1,470,970
1846	1,332,089
1847	1,720,350
1848	1,626,201

—*Progress of the Nation*, 3d Ed. p. 94.

These are the results exhibited in England and Wales. The poor's rates since 1837 have doubled in real weight, and we need not say that they are calculated to awaken the most alarming reflections; the more especially when it is recollected that the year 1849 was one of reviving, and, during its last six months, of boasted commercial prosperity. But the matter becomes much more serious, and the picture of the social condition of the island much more correct and striking, when the simultaneous measures, adopted during the last five years in Scotland and Ireland, are taken into consideration.

We need not tell our readers that, prior to 1844, Ireland had no poor law at all; and that although Scotland had a most humane and admirable poor law on its statute-book, yet its operation had been so much frittered away and nullified, by the unhappy decision of the Court of Session, which gave no control to the *local* courts over the decisions of the heritors and kirk-sessions (church-wardens of parishes), thereby in effect rendering them judges without control in their own cause, that it, practically speaking, amounted to almost nothing. But as the evils of that state of things had become apparent, and had been demonstrated *luce meridiana cla-*

rius, by Dr. Alison and other distinguished philanthropists, an efficient statute was passed in 1845, which corrected this evil, and has since produced the following results, which may well attract the notice of the most inconsiderate, from the rapid increase which pauperism exhibits, and the extraordinary magnitude it has already attained in Scotland—

Years.	Sums raised.	Number of Poor, fixed and casual.	Registered Paupers.
1840	£202,811		
1841	218,481		
1844	258,814		
1845	306,044	63,070, or 1 in 42	62,070 or 1 in 42
1846	435,367	69,432 — 1 — 38	69,432 — 1 — 38
1847	533,073	146,370 — 1 — 17.8	74,161 — 1 — 35.3
1848	583,613	227,647 — 1 — 11.5	77,732 — 1 — 33.7
1849		202,120 — 1 — 12.96	82,357 — 1 — 41.3

—*Poor-Law Report, Scotland*, Aug. 1849.

In the year 1850, a year of unusual commercial prosperity, the sums assessed for the relief of the poor in Glasgow alone, irrespective of buildings and other expenses connected with them, was £87,637, and with these expenses £121,000.*

In Ireland, the growth of the Poor Law, from its first introduction, has been still more rapid and alarming, as might have been anticipated from the greater mass of indigence and destitution with which it there had to contend. The sums raised for relief of the poor in that country, the *nominal* rental of which is £13,000,000, have stood thus for the last three years—

Year ending Sept. 20.	Collected.	Expended.	Indoor Paupers, August.	Outdoor Paupers.
1846	£359,870	£350,667		
1847	585,507	717,713	75,376	
1848	1,559,248	1,732,597	150,000	833,889
1849	1,648,337	2,177,651	203,199	666,224
1850	1,561,846	1,274,125	264,048†	141,077

—*Third Annual Report, Ireland*, p. 7.

On 3d July, 1847, no less than 3,020,712 *persons were fed by the public in Ireland*, being about 40 per cent. on the whole population—certainly, at that date, under 8,000,000. Well may the *Edinburgh Review* say, in reference to this astonishing subject—

"The collection in the year 1847-8 is remarkable: three times

* Dr. Young's Report, Jan. 1851. † On 22d June, 1850.

the amount of the collections of 1846-7, five times the amount of the collections of 1845–6. A tax unknown in Ireland ten years before was levied in the year 1848 to the extent of *one-ninth* of the rateable property of the country, and that in a period of unprecedented depression and embarrassment. In the same year the expenditure had risen 150 *per cent.* above that of 1847, *and* 500 *per cent. above the expenditure of* 1846. The expenditure in 1848-9 exceeds that of 1847 by the large sum of £454,054."

The diminished expenditure of 1850 is mainly owing to the reduction in the price of provisions in that year, which has caused the cost of an in-door pauper to decline from 2s. 2d., which it was in April 1847, to 1s. 2d., *or nearly a half*, to which it fell in autumn 1849, which it has never since exceeded. Measured by quarters of grain, the poor's-rate of Ireland, in 1850, was fully twice as heavy as it was in 1848, when the effects of the disastrous famine of 1846 were still felt.

After these broad and decisive facts, drawn from so many official sources, and all conspiring to one result, it may seem unnecessary to go further, or load these pages, for which matter abundant to overflowing still remains, with any farther proof or illustration of a thing unhappily too apparent. But as our system is mainly calculated for the interest of our great manufacturing cities, and, at all events, has been brought about by their influence, and is strictly in conformity with their demands, we cannot resist the insertion of a most able, humane, and zealous minister of the Free Church in Glasgow on the moral and religious state of the working-classes in that vast and rapidly-increasing city, which now has little short of 400,000 inhabitants within its bounds.

"I know," said Dr. Patterson, "that many congregations, not of the Free Church, both feel and manifest an anxious and enlightened concern in this cause. I do not attempt to describe their efforts, simply because I am not in a position to do them justice. I hail them, however, as fellow-laborers. I rejoice to know that they are in the field to some extent already, and I shall rejoice still more to see their exertions multiplying side by side with our own. Certain I am that nothing short *of a levy en masse of whatever there is of living Christianity in the City*, in all the branches of the Church of Christ which it contains, will suffice to make head against the *augmenting ignorance and ungodliness, and Popery and infidelity, with which we have to deal.* My other observation is for the members of our own church. Some of them will, perhaps, be startled by this movement, simply because it is adding another to our already numerous schemes—and because it may aggravate the difficulty we already feel of carrying them on. Here, they may say, is the beginning of new demands upon both our money and our time. To such a complaint I have no other answer to make but one—but it is one that seems to me to be decisive. My answer is, that this movement, whatever it may cost,

is a matter of life and death. If we *do not destroy this evil, it will destroy us.*"

These are certainly strong expressions, but they come from one well acquainted, from personal visitation in his parish, which is one of the most densely peopled in Glasgow, and second to none in zeal and ability to combat the enormous mass of destitution, crime, sensuality, and civilized heathenism with which he has to deal. And that he does not exaggerate the evil, and speaks from accurate information, not vague imagination, is evident from the details which he gives.

"I begin with the old Wynd, which is the western boundary of the parish, and of which only the one side, therefore, is in the Tron parish. That one side contains 102 families and 504 individuals. Among that population there are possessed in all only 11 church sittings, or little more than 2 to the 100. Of the 102 families, only 14 profess to be in the habit of going to any place of worship. In the new Wynd, there are 350 families and 1976 individuals, possessing in all 66 church sittings, or little more than 3 to the 100. Of the 350 families, only 67 profess to be in the habit of attending any place of worship. Lastly, the Back Wynd contains 137 families and 752 individuals, who possess in all only 6 church sittings, or less than 1 to the 100! Of these 137 families, only 13 profess to attend any place of worship. Here, then, in these three Wynds, constituting but a section of the parish, we have a population of 3232 individuals, with only 83 church sittings, or little more than an average of 2½ to the 100. Of the 589 families of which that population consists, the enormous number of 495 families, by their own confession, are living in habitual and total estrangement from the house of God. In these appalling circumstances, it will not surprise the presbytery to learn, that in the whole of the three Wynds there were found no more than 117 Bibles—in other words, that scarcely *one* family in *five* were possessed of a copy of the Word of God!"

Again he says—

"During the first ten of the last thirty years—that is, from 1821 to 1831—the population increased at the rate of about 5000 a-year. During the second ten of these years—that is, from 1831 to 1841—it increased at the rate of 8000 a-year. During the third ten of these years—that is, from 1841 to 1851—it is believed, on good grounds, that the increase will average 12,000 a-year. Let any man consider these facts, and then, if he has courage to look forward at all, let him try to picture to himself the state of Glasgow when another thirty years shall have run their course. If the same ratio of increase holds on—and I know of no good reason for doubting that it will—we shall have in thirty years a population nearly equal in numbers to that of Paris; and most assuredly, if the Christian churches do not speedily arouse themselves, it will be by that time like Paris in more respects than one. We may have

the numbers of the French capital, but we shall have *their infidelity, their Popery, their licentiousness, and their lawlessness too.* If our efforts did not keep pace with a population growing at the rate of 5000 a-year, how are such efforts to do alongside of a population growing at the rate of from 12,000 to 15,000 a-year? If in the race of the last thirty years we fell at least twenty years behind, how tremendously and how ruinously shall we be distanced in the next thirty years to come! 'If thou hast run with the footmen, and they have wearied thee, then how canst thou contend with horses? And if in the land of peace, wherein thou trustedst, they wearied thee, then how wilt thou do in the swellings of Jordan?"

We select this as a picture of our great manufacturing towns, in which the greatest and most unbounded prosperity, so far as mere production goes, has prevailed, generally speaking, for the last thirty years; in which the custom-house duties have increased, since 1812, from £3000 a-year to £660,000, and the river dues from £4500 to £56,000 in the same period; but in which the sums expended in poor-rates and pauper burials were, in round numbers,—

	Poor Rates.	Pauper Burials.
1848.....	£180,000.....	4042
1849.....	132,000.....	3577
1850.....	120,000*.....	2381

Including the deplorable destitution of multitudes in the midst of this growing wealth and unparalleled increase of manufacturing and commercial greatness. In the last year, out of 10,461 burials, no less than 2381, or nearly *a fourth*, were at the public expense.†

Of the wretched condition of a large class of the operatives of Glasgow—that employed in making clothes for the rest of the community—the following striking account has been given in a recent interesting publication on the "Sweating System," by a merchant tailor of the city:—

"The *out-door* or sweating system, by which the great proportion of their work is produced, has had a fearful debasing effect on journeymen tailors. Work is given out to a person denominated a 'middle-man.' He alone comes into contact with the employer. He employs others to work under him, in his own house. The workmen have no respect for him, as they have for an ordinary employer; nor has he the slightest influence over them, in enforcing proper conduct or prudent habits. On the contrary, his influence tends only to their hurt. *He engages them to work at the lowest possible prices*—making all the profit he can out of them. He ordinarily sets them down to work in a small, dirty room, in some unhealty part of the city. They are allowed to work at irregular hours. Sunday, in innumerable instances, brings

* Including buildings £87,000; for poor alone. †Dr. Strand's Report, 1851.

no rest to the tailor under the sweating system; he must serve his slave-driver on that day too, even if he should go idle on the other days of the week. *No use of churches or ministers to him; his calling is to produce so-called cheap clothes for the million* —Sunday or Monday being alike necessary for such a laudable pursuit, though his soul should perish. Small matter that: only let the cheap system flourish, and thereby increase the riches of the people, and then full compensation has been made, though moral degradation, loss of all self-respect, and tattered rags, be the lot of the unhappy victim, sunk by it to the lowest possible degree."*

Such is the effect of the cheapening and competition system, in one of our greatest manufacturing towns, in a year of great and unusual commercial prosperity. That the condition of the vast multitude engaged in the making of clothes in the metropolis is not better, may be judged of by the fact that there are in London 20,000 jorneymen tailors, of whom 14,000 can barely earn a miserable subsistence by working fourteeen hours a-day, Sunday included; and that Mr. Sidney Herbert himself, a great Free-Trader, has been lately endeavoring to get subscriptions for the needlewomen of London, on the statement that there are there 33,000 females of that class, who only earn on an average 4½d. a day, by working fourteen hours. And the writer of this Essay has ascertained, by going over the returns of the census af 1841 for Glasgow, (Occupations of the People,) that there were in Glasgow in that year above 50,000 women engaged in factories or needlework, and whose average earnings certainly do not, even in this year of boasted commercial prosperity, exceed 7s. or 8s. a week. *Their number is now, beyond all question, above* 60,000, and their wages not higher. Such is the cheapening and competition system in the greatest marts of manufacturing industry, and in a year when provisions were cheap, exports great, and the system devised for its special encouragement in full and unrestrained activity.

Facts of this kind give too much reason to believe that the picture drawn in a late work of romance, but evidently taken by a well-informed observer in London, is too well founded in fact:—

"Every working tailor must come to this at last, on the present system; and we are lucky in having been spared so long. You all know where this will end—in the same misery as 15,000 out of 20,000 of our class are enduring now. We shall become the slaves, often the bodily prisoners, of Jews, middle-men, and sweaters, who draw their livelihood out of our starvation. We shall have to fare as the rest have—ever decreasing prices of labor, ever increasing profits, made out of that labor by the contractors, who will employ us—arbitrary fines, inflicted at the caprice of hirelings —the competition of women, and children, and starving Irish—our

* Modern System of Low-priced Goods, p. 2, 3.

hours of work will increase one-third, our actual pay decrease to less than one-half. And in all this we shall have no hope, no chance of improvement in wages, but even more penury, slavery, misery, as we are pressed on by those who are sucked by fifties—almost by hundreds—yearly out of the honorable trade in which we were brought up, into the infernal system of contract work, which is devouring our trade, and many others, body and soul. Our wives will be forced to sit up night and day to help us—our children must labor from the cradle, without chance of going to school, hardly of breathing the fresh air of heaven—our boys, as they grow up, must turn beggars or paupers—our daughters, as thousands do, must eke out their miserable ernings by prostitution. And after all, a whole family will not gain what one of us had been doing, as yet, single-handed. You know there will be no hope for us. There is no use appealing to Government."*

We shall only add to these copious extracts and documents one illustrative of the state to which the West Highlands of Scotland have been brought by Free Trade in black cattle and barilla, the staple of their industry:—

Price of the Estate, £163,779.

Years.	Receipts.	Expenditures on Estate.
1847	£4,134 0 0	£7,305 0 0
1848	1,781 0 0	4,253 0 0
1849	1,109 0 0	1,294 0 0
1850	1,345 0 0	1,126 0 0

—*Inverness Courier.*

Couple this with the facts that, in 1850, in the face of average prices of wheat at about 40s. a quarter, the importation of all sorts of grain into Great Britain and Ireland was about 9,500,000 quarters—of course displacing domestic industry employed previous to 1846 in this production; so that the acres under wheat cultivation in Ireland have sunk from 2,048,000 in 1847, to 664,000 in 1849; and there will be no difficulty in explaining the immense influx of the destitute from the country into the great towns—augmenting thus the enormous mass of destitution, pauperism, and wretchedness, with which they are already overwhelmed.

Such is a picture, however brief and imperfect, of the social condition of our population, after twenty years of Liberal government, self-direction, and increasing popularisation, enhanced, during the last five years, by the blessings of Free Trade and a restricted and fluctuating currency. The question remains the most momentous on which public attention can now be engaged. Is this state of things *unavoidable*, or are there any means by which, under Providence, it may be removed or alleviated? Part of it is unavoidable, and by no human wisdom could be averted. But by

* Alton Locke, vol. i. p. 149–50.

far the greater part is directly owing to the selfish and shortsighted legislation of man, and might at once be removed by a wise, just, and equal system of government.

COMMERCE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.

Tabular Statement of the principal articles exported from the United States to Canada for the year ending 31st June, 1850.

Spermaceti, Gallons 12,320, value		$11,148
Oil, whale and other fish, do. 45,599, value		35,442
Candles, spermaceti, lbs.	"	3,633
Wood, manufactures of	"	25,298
Horned cattle, beef, hides and tallow	"	166,193
Pork, hams and bacon, lard, hogs	"	62,349
Horses and mules	"	14,848
Wheat, bushels, 78,610	"	58,968
Flour, barrels, 29,138	"	132.509
Indian corn, bushels, 89,604,	"	42,113
Apples, barrels 794,	"	1,350
Rice, tierces, 1,192,	"	23,604
Cotton, lbs., 43,522,	"	4,319
Tobacco, hogsheads, 828,	"	39,352
Tobacco, manufactured and snuff,	"	180,599
Hemp, cwt., 358,	"	2,704
Sugar, brown, lbs., 321,659,	"	15,759
Sugar, refined, lbs., 104,768	"	9,416
Household furniture	"	36,238
Coaches and other carriages	"	5,575
Hats	"	22,771
Tallow, candles and soap	"	13,966
Leather, boots, and shoes	"	66,552
Salt	"	74,858
Nails	"	16,265
Castings,	"	18,280
Iron, all manufactures of,	"	293,629
Medical drugs,	"	62,306
Cotton, manufactures of,	"	202,762
Books and maps	"	46,323
Paints and varnish,	"	15,673
Glass,	"	24,938
Marble and stone,	"	17,377

Coal,	"	36,813
		1,803,911
All other articles		2,837,540
Total		4,641,451
Exported in American vessels,		$2,944,608
Exported in Foreign do.		1,696,843

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CANADA FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1851.

Gold,		$104,070
Silver,		322,299
Animals for breed,	value..	54,722
Garden seeds, trees, shrubs and plants...	"	60,419
Iron, pig,	"	16,072
Iron, bar, scrap, &c.,	"	205,035
Furs,	"	12,721
Fire wood,	"	80,473
Hides, raw,	"	15,387
Flax seed	"	19,377
Wool,	"	55,635
Oil, linseed,	"	1,280
Butter,	"	52,120
Rags,	"	8,994
Salt,	"	7,279
Wheat, bushels, 1,237,336,	"	907,615
Barley, do. 19,740,	"	7,644
Rye, do. 30,537,	"	10,309
Oats, do. 500,284,	"	94,360
Flour, cwt., 286,244,	"	1,194,094
Rye meal do. 1,114,	"	1,534
Oat meal do. 3,630,	"	4,258
Potatoes, bushels, 15,047,	"	3,297
Salmon, dried,	"	5,531
		$2,234,625
All other articles,		2,050,845
Total imports		$4,285,470

Imports free of duty, $636,454; paying duties, $4,285,470. Imported in American vessels, $2,027,569; in foreign vessels, $2,257,901.

COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK—JUNE.

	1848.	1849.
Domestic Merchandise	$2,235,844	$3,317,740
Foreign, free	12,213	29,464
Foreign, dutiable,	147,017	416,428
Specie and Bullion	1,971,915	596,411
Total	$4,366,989	$4,360,043

	1850.	1851.
Domestic Merchandise	$3,971,207	$3,778,289
Foreign, free,	51,887	56,435
Foreign, dutiable,	442,493	265,290
Specie and Bullion	880,434	6,462,367
Total	$5,346,021	$10,562,381

The aggregate of Merchandise, & in deducting the specie is:—

June, 1848	$2,395,074	1850	$4,465,587
June, 1849	3,763,632	1851	4,099,014

COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF NEW ORLEANS.

The following facts are extracted from the speech of Mr. Payne, a member of the General Council of the city of New Orleans, as reported by the "Commercial Bulletin."* Many of our readers will doubtless be surprised at the enormous charges to which the commerce of the West has heretofore been subjected at that port. Another fact is disclosed by this speech, which has been overlooked by the people of the West, the gradual, and, we may say, rapid decline in the commerce of New Orleans. This is a new feature in the history of American cities and deserves the attentive consideration of the citizens of the Western States. We intend noticing this subject more at large hereafter.

Mr. Payne addressed the Council upwards of half an hour in favor of the system proposed by him, and his remarks were listened to with profound attention, and we give an abstract of them:

* We copy from the St. Louis Intelligencer.

Under the present law, he said, it was generally known that steamboats and sailing vessels were most unjustly called upon, whether they were in port one day or sixty days, to pay wharfage sixty days. The injustice of this was obvious. As well might a tavern or hotel-keeper make a rule that he would charge his boarders for sixty days, whether they remained in his house one day or sixty. Every principle of sound policy, that should govern a city like this, was violated in such a rule. The true policy was that of strict honesty, and was this system honest?

The evils arising from this system of overburdening commerce were many. The live oak, cut in our forests was taken to the North to be wrought, for no vessel could afford to lie at our wharves to be repaired. This was but one and a slight one among many great evils. Not only was a vessel charged full sixty days, though she should be but ten days in port, but if she chance to remain one day over sixty, she was charged for a second full term.

The effect of all this was visible in our declining commerce. He wished he could present another picture than that laid before him by the papers in his possession. But he had a duty to perform, and that duty required a painful exposition of facts. He would lay before the Council some statistics, gathered from the public records, which would show the necessity of reform.

From the Custom house, we learn that there arrived from sea, the past four years:

1st April, '47, to M'ch 31, '48, 3127 ships & ves. of 905,861 t'ns.
1st April, '48, to M'ch 31, '49, 2624 " " of 883,753 t'ns.
1st April, '49, to M'ch 31, '50, 2435 " " of 837,697 t'ns.
1st April, '50, to M'ch 31, '51, 2019 " " of 708,821 t'ns.

Showing a diminution of 1108 ships and 197,030 tons of tonnage.

The steamboat arrivals in 1847 and 1848 were 2977.
" " " in 1848 and 1849 were 2883.
" " " in 1849 and 1850 were 2784.

Showing a falling off of nearly 100 steamboats, annually, while flatboats, in the same time, fell from over 3000 to less than 700 the last year.

With these facts before us, it was plain that New Orleans, instead of occupying the position as a commercial city, that her great natural advantages entitled her to, was fast falling off. And the decline of her prosperity was as perceptible in the enumeration of her population, as it was in the reduced number of ships visiting her harbor. The census of 1840 showed her to be the third city in the Union in point of population. New York then stood first, Philadelphia second and New Orleans third, but now, according to the census of 1850, she stands the seventh. He would proceed to show the causes of this declension; and he wished it to be

understood that his object was not to censure the gentlemen filling the places to which he should have occasion to advert. The offices they filled were created by law, and no blame could attach to them for filling them.

The law as it now stands "gives to pilots $2 50 per foot for all vessels drawing 10 feet of water, and under; all over that $3 50 per foot IN and OUT of the Mississippi." According to the annual statement of the *Price Current* for 1848, 1849, and 1850, there arrived in these three years:

2396 Ships of an average, say of 15 ft.e., $3 50 per ft., in and out.....	$105 each.....	$274,490 00
489 Steamships.....	105 each.....	51,345 00
1334 Barks, 13 feet.....	91 each.....	121,394 00
1199 Brigs, 11 feet.....	77 each.....	91,223 00
1917 Schooners, 8 feet.....	40 each.....	76,600 00
7335 Vessels—Pilot's fees on same by law for three years.....		$615,152 00

By an accurate calculation of the exact tonnage of the vessels for one year, we find the ships to average 608 tons each, barks 363, brigs 197, and schooners 104 tons. The towboats receive them from the pilots, and according to their published rates, (1850) these ships paid towage up to the city, as follows:

2396 Ships, 608 tons each, $380 each ship.....	$910,480 00
1334 Barks, 363 tons each, $252 each ship.....	336,168 00
1199 Brigs, 191 tons each, $160 each ship	191,840 00
1917 Schooners, 104 tons each, $100 each ship.....	191,700 00

And down to the bar:

2396 Ships as above, $185 each ship.....	$443,280 00
1334 Barks, 93 each.....	124,062 00
1199 Brigs, 50 each	59,950 00
1917 Schooners, 31 25 each.....	49,906 25
Three year's towage	$2,307,386 25

The towboat delivered them to the Harbormasters. The law regulating Harbormasters' fees, reads as follows:

"Three cents per ton is allowed the Harbormasters for every ship or vessel that may enter the port of New Orleans, and load or unload, or make fast to said Levee, within the limits of said port; provided, the same do not extend to chalms, flat, or keel-boats."

These same 3 years, there were in 1848.....905,861 tons.
" " " " 1849.....883,753 "
" " " " 1850.....837,697 "

Total tons.....2,627,311

At 3 cents.....$78,819 33
On steamboats there were in 1848.....2977 arrivals.
" " " 1849.....2883 "
" " " 1850.....2784 "

Total.....8644
Equal to 2,531,091 tons, at 3c.....$75,932 73

Harbormaster's fees for 3 years.....$154,752 06

The Harbormaster now hands them over to the Portwardens. The law regulating Portwardens' fees, reads thus:

"Portwardens are authorised to demand and receive from each vessel, arriving in port from sea, five dollars, *whether they be called on for any service or not.*"

But this gives them, as well as the Harbormasters, fees for all services they may be called upon to perform, besides the rates here set down. This sum of $5 on those 7335 vessels for nothing, in the same three years, amounts to $36,625.

The Portwarden now turns them over to the hands of the Collectors of Levee and Wharfage dues, and in the same three years,

They collect	$941,273 35
To this let us add the Pilot Fees	615,152 00
The Towboats	2,207,886 25
Harbormasters	154,752 06
Portwardens	36,625 00
Total	$4,035,788 66

To this we must add the following additional allowances:

Pilots are allowed extra by law, Towboats are allowed extra by regulation; Harbormasters, axtra by law; Portwardens, extra by law; and when all these extras are put on, we may safely suppose this enormous sum is swelled to $4,500,000 for the three years, being an average of a million and a half of dollars annually levied on our commerce to get to our wharves.

[A proposition was offered by Mr. Payne and adopted by the Council, which provides "That sailing vessels shall hereafter be charged *per diem* at the rate of half a cent a ton; steamships, two and a half cents a ton; and steamboats, two cents a ton; and that no vessel shall be charged, in any municipality, for a longer time than she was actually moored in the harbor of that municipality."]

OPERATIONS OF THE MINT.

The following statement shows the oporations of the United States Mint at Philadelphia, for June 1851:

May 31—Balance		$1,424,815 91
June 30—Rec'ts. Customs,	$267,569 20	
P. O. Money	15,081 34	
Fund per interest on Loans	181,193 06	
Miscellaneous	3,344 19	$467,187 79
Total		$1,892,003 70
Payment Treas. Drafts	$438,949 75	
P. O. Warrants	33,870 34	
Interest on Loans, Pensions, &c	14,497 63	487,317 72
June 30—Balance		$1,404,685 98

Gold bullion deposited for coinage from 1st to 30th June, 1851, inclusive:

From California	$3,570,000
From other sources	60,000
Total	$3,630,000
Silver Bullion deposited in same time	$11,700

COINAGE FOR JUNE.

Gold.

130,515	Double Eagles	$2,610,300 00
12,127	Eagles	121,270 00
71,236	Half Eagles	356,180 00
114,244	Quarter Eagles	285,610 00
279,888	Gold Dollars	279,888 00
608,010	Pieces	$3,653,248 00

Silver.

1,300	Dollars	$1,300 00
12,500	Half Dollars	6,250 00
16,000	Quarter Dollars	4,000 00
65,000	Dimes	6,500 00
946,500	Three Cent Pieces	28,395 00
1,041,310	Pieces	$46,435 00

Copper.

1,016,517	Cents	$10,165 17
2,665,827	Pieces	$3,709,858 17

A large surplus of Gold Dollars and Quarter Eagles, beyond the demands of the depositors, still remain in the Treasury.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD.

The ceremony of breaking ground on this work was performed on the south side of Chouteau's Pond, near the city limits, on the Fourth inst. The day was beautiful, and wisely was it chosen by the Directors; for it was well to celebrate the glorious deeds of the past by the commencement of a great enterprise calculated to extend and perpetuate the political and civil institutions established by the wisdom and valor of our fore-fathers.

Our citizens attended the celebration in large numbers. An able address was delivered by the President, Thomas Allen; a beautiful prologue, written for the occasion by A. S. Mitchell, Esq., was delivered in fine style by J. M. Field; and the Hon. Edward Bates delighted the assembled multitude by one of his happiest efforts. The ceremony of breaking ground was performed by the Hon. L. M. Kennett, Mayor of the city of St. Louis.

We learn that the section of the road from St. Louis to the mouth of the Bourbeuse—about forty miles in length—has been put under contract at about $1000 per mile less than the estimates of the Engineer.

Missouri may now be regarded as having actually entered upon a system of public improvements which, if prosecuted with wisdom, will in due time place her first on the list of American States. Much has been said and written, at home and abroad, respecting the want of public spirit on the part of our citizens: and hence it is proper to remark that the character of our people and physical condition of our State is not generally understood. No enterprise upon a small scale can be of any important advantage to the State of Missouri, because the principal settlements and commercial towns are all on or near navigable rivers; and hence, in projecting a system of improvements, we could only look to the future settlement of the country to sustain them. In view of these facts, none but bold and enterprising spirits could be induced to invest capital in the construction of public works.

All things considered, the commencement of the Pacific Railway may be regarded as one of the boldest undertakings of the present day; and denotes a degree of wisdom and public spirit on the part of our citizens, creditable alike to themselves and to the State.

It was natural that, while looking forward to the commencement of a great system, different opinions should be entertained in respect to location, irrespective of the cost of constructing the work on different routes; and we can well appreciate the difficulties, which the directory must have experienced in making a selection. We have looked to their decision on this point with no ordinary degree of interest, and are gratified they have, so far as the location has been certainly made, fixed on the route which we have al-

ways regarded as best calculated to promote the great objects of the enterprise.

This is in fact the commencement of a railway to the Pacific ocean: and the route through Missouri should deviate as little from the direction of the entire line as the interest of our own State will admit of. But while building the main stem of the Pacific railway, we should aim to lay the foundation of a system for South Missouri, extending into Arkansas, Texas, and the rich country west of our State boundary; and, if practicable, to connect the line with the Missouri where it may unite with a system north of that river. The Maramec route to Jefferson city would seem to subserve all these objects. And, should that line be adopted, and the North Missouri railroad not be made, it is at least probable that in time the trade of a large portion of North Missouri will pass over that part of the Pacific Railroad, east of Jefferson city.

We had intended to give copious extracts from the very able and lucid report of the chief Engineer, James P. Kirkwood, Esq., but owing to the arrangement of other matter, we are compelled to defer doing so at present. We have examined the report throughout its details and regard it as decidedly honorable to the talent and professional skill of its author.

REMARKS ON THE HUMAN MIND.

BY EDWARD STAGG.

WHAT is mind? We turn to the lexicon, and find there that the *word* is defined as the intelligent, or intellectual, faculty in man. But we have only the definition of the word. The question then naturally pursues us, and demands, What is that intelligent, or intellectual faculty? Or, rather, what is its nature? And here we must face the query boldly, and admit we cannot resolve it. All that we know about mind, is from its manifestations; from those operations of it which we experience by our senses. Of its essence, or nature, we are as entirely ignorant, as we are of that of God himself. And when we reflect, that we are ignorant of the essence of matter; that even our own bodies, when endeavoring to comprehend their nature, are silent to our investigations, we may not hope to know what is that immaterial being within us. We must content ourselves, therefore, with what the Bible tells us of its creation. That Book says of the first man: God "breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, and man became a living soul." Simultaneously, then, with animal life, we perceive, came the existence of the Spirit; and these together constituted the perfect man.

Now, that matter and spirit are distinct essences, is evident from the fact, that material man, made "of the dust of the ground," was formed and fashioned *before* he was endowed with a soul. Had body and soul been one and the same essence, both would have evolved together from the same substance. But, we find a tenement first made, and ready for its occupant; and *then* was placed in it, by the breath of Omnipotence, a "living soul." Before this creative breath entered into man's nostrils, he was as useless, for all the purposes of existence, as were those dry bones in the valley of vision, ere they resumed their garments of flesh, and lived again.

It will be observed, that we are using the words mind and soul synonymously. We do so, because we think of mind and soul, and have ever thought of them, as one and the same created intelligence. The same faculties are possessed by both. The mind thinks, feels, acts, expands. It is said of the soul, that, in the eternal existence, she will think, and feel, and act, and expand. By the mind we learn so much of the great Uncreated as He has been pleased to reveal of Himself. And it will be by the soul, that, in another life, we shall "know Him even as we are known."

Shall we go back two thousand years, and ask Plato about the nature of the mind? He will talk to us of a separate and distinct entity, and take us through a metaphysical speculation, which shall lead us—nowhere. No, we need not ask Plato, nor yet his preceptor, Socrates, of the nature of the mind. For, all which that school of philosophy can tell us of the subject, resolves itself into this, that *ideas are the only objects about which we can reason demonstratively.* Hence, as we can have no *idea* of the nature of mind, philosophy of course admits that reason cannot comprehend the volitive principle within us. Ancient philosophy could reason about the faculties of mind, as well as about the attributes of man's person; and modern philosophy can do likewise. But, more than this, ancient philosophy could not do,—no more than this, can modern.

Where is the mind? Its throne is in the brain. And this leads us to speak of the brain, as connected with the operations of the mind.

The brain acts as the organ of the immaterial principle; and, strange as it may seem, affects that principle, according as the brain is in a healthy, or a diseased state. The connection between them presents an insolvable mystery; but, that such connection subsists, mental phenomena have abundantly demonstrated. It was Gall who first drew attention to these phenomena, as proving that mysterious connection. And, notwithstanding we cannot but smile at the absurd claims for Phrenology, set up by some of its more modern expounders, we must admit that the system of Gall has done much for the meleoration of mankind, making appreciable the fact of a connection between the mind and the brain.

Let us look at a few of the phenomena alluded to.

Persons with their mental faculties in full vigor, have, from some casualty, or from the murderous designs of an enemy, been knocked down by a blow on the head. Insensibility has been the immediate effect; the mind has lost its consciousness; all its faculties have become suspended. If the wound be not internal—that is, if the brain have received no injury—restoration to consciousness may soon take place. But if there have been a fracture, or compression of the skull, so that the brain suffers violence, then it will be found, in most cases, that a deficiency of some one or more of the mental faculties will continue until the injury done the brain shall have been repaired.

What strikes us more particularly with wonder, and renders the action of the material on the immaterial, if possible, still more inexplicable, is the fact that, from outward violence on the head, a faculty—memory, for example—may become only *partially* impaired. That is to say, we may forget entirely names, or dates, or events; or a language with which we were before familiar; while, respecting everything else memory is faithful to its trust. The following, illustrative of this, we find, among other instances, in Dr. Brigham's work on the Brain:

"Dr. Beattie," says Brigham, "mentions the case of a learned man, who, after a blow on the head, forgot all his Greek, a language he was well versed in before the injury. His mind and memory were not affected in any other respect."

Here is a case opposite to that. Says Dr. Brigham again, "Dr. Connally relates the case of a young clergyman whose head was severely injured a few days before that on which he was to be married. He recovered as to health, and lived to the age of 80 years. From the time of the injury, his understanding was permanently deranged, though he retained the recollection of his approaching marriage, and talked of nothing else during his life."

A diseased body, when no external injury has been sustained, often affects the mind to its hurt. Gloominess; eccentricity; or insanity, in some of its protean forms, is frequently a consequence of an unhealthy condition of our animal nature. Dyspepsia is a common cause of gloominess, or melancholy. Fevers often induce temporary derangement of the mind, and sometimes leave the intellect debilitated; having robbed it almost entirely of memory, and otherwise despoiled it of its wonted health and vigor.

The remarks already made concerning the partial impairment of memory, from *external* violence, will apply equally well to disease, or derangement of the functions of the body.

On the other hand, mind is sometimes a cause of great hurt to matter. Grief, for example, which can be appreciated only by mind, induces a waste of the body, which, not unfrequently, results in dissolution. Joy, also, will excite the nervous system in a degree corresponding with its intensity. And so it may be said of

anger, hate, revenge, &c. In short, whatever tends unduly to excite the mind, or to possess it for long, to the exclusion of all else, has a deleterious effect upon it; in which effect the body sympathizes.

Taking the hint possibly from the evident, though mysterious, connection between the mind and the brain, some have had the temerity to advance, that the thinking principle and matter are one and the same essence. Have such never thought that, if their proposition were true, hills might literally be "joyful together," whenever occasion should offer; and that valleys, standing thick with corn, might literally "laugh and sing," while feeling the warming sun, or the cooling rain? If mind be matter, and matter be mind, (the sum of the materialist's reasoning, by the way,) why not put a respectable block, fashioned as a man, in the Presidential chair? If mind were matter, and matter mind, then might we literally, in very truth, find "sermons in stones."

It is just as false a conclusion, that, *because* the brain is the organ of the mind, therefore brain and mind are the same in their nature, as would be the conclusion, that, because machinery is the organ of the motive power of steam, therefore machinery and steam are one and the same thing.

We have no intention of making a comparison between the volitive principle and vaporized water; we mean simply to show the fallacy of the reasoning, that, because two things act on each other, they are, by consequence, one and the same in their nature.

Nor is it a necessary conclusion, that, because the mind now seems to be dependent upon the brain for the health and vigor of its faculties, therefore, when the body is dead, mind must have become deprived of those faculties, nay, that it also is dead. We say the conclusion is not necessary. The steam is not condensed in consequence of a break in the machinery, which causes that machinery to cease moving.

Some have talked learnedly about the cerebrum and the cerebellum; the functions they perform, their mutual action, &c.; and would have us believe that *these* do all our thinking, willing, feeling, and perceiving; in short, that they are the sentient being within us. From what has been said, we have seen what duty they perform in the thinking and acting of that wonderful being, man.

Respecting that annihilation of the soul, which the infidel preaches —but which, we venture to affirm, even *he* does not believe—we can advisedly say, that such utter passing out of existence is unknown in the order of *matter;* and then we may, with a good show of reason, ask if it be probable, at least, that *mind* will not exist beyond the brief period of this natural life.

But, the mind is mysterious not only in its essence, and in its connection with the brain, but in its operations also. It presents phenomena which we cannot comprehend; which render man the greatest of all enigmas. Mind has its own reflections, peculiar to

its individual self, upon external objects, as well as it receives impressions from without. To illustrate. I may maintain that a given proposition in morals quadrates with the Divine Will, as revealed to us. Another, interpreting differently, insists that the proposition militates against that Will. Now, because we thus differ, it is not necessarily true that either he is, or I am, insincere. Both of us may have honest convictions. Could I, then, be satisfied that my opponent *has* honest convictions, and he be satisfied that I have honest convictions likewise, it were very unfair for either to charge the other with wilful opposition, or stubbornness. But it is because we perceive the same thing so differently, and because we cannot read each other's thoughts, nor perceive the workings of each other's understanding, that I get angry at my opponent for his not coinciding with my view of the proposition, and that he gets angry at me for my not coinciding with his view of it. Hence, polemic war is often carried on with so much heat, and sometimes so disgracefully to the combatants.

"All men do not think alike," is a saying invested with all the familiarity of a proverb. And no proverb is more true. We may say, in strictest truth, that to no two minds does the same subject present itself in precisely the same aspect. This is evident from the different manner in which two minds will treat the same given subject. Listen to two preachers, for example, discoursing from the same text, and you will generally find, instead of a comparison, a contrast of ideas. If, however, you should discover great similarity between the two sermons, you would not be uncharitable in entertaining a suspicion that one preacher has borrowed from the other; or that there has been an interchange of ideas; or that both have plagiarised, to all intents and purposes.

An operation of my own mind, which has seemed peculiarly mysterious to me, is this. Some new idea has flashed across it, and frequently, at the instant, there has come a sort of *recollection* of that idea. I have been satisfied at the time that the thought was entirely new to me, and yet it has seemed that I was once familiar with it. Others, I know, have experienced a like operation of their own minds, but I am persuaded they cannot account for it. To me it is perfectly inexplicable; unless I suspect that memory has played the cheat to perception; an act of which I cannot believe that faculty to have been guilty.

Has not many an one taken cognizance of an operation of the mind like this? You are reading, we will suppose, and your eye falling upon an historical fact, or a term in science, your mind seems at once to invest that fact, or that term, with all the conclusiveness of unquestionable evidence that the writer is possessed of an abundance of historical facts; or has an intimate knowledge of the science, a single term of which he has used.

But this operation is not confined to reading. You have fortuitously discovered some material object, for example, and imme-

diately on beholding it, your mind makes a suggestion, amounting well nigh to assurance, that there is more of the same description not far off.

As it respects the material object, at least, such operation of the mind is a serviceable one, as it incites to further, and, oft-times, patient and laborious search, a search that might not otherwise have been made.

Now, we are disposed to attribute this operation to that faculty of *association*, which the human mind is ever putting into exercise; and perhaps we place the credit to the right account. But *how* this operation is carried on, who can tell? The phenomenon well serves as another instance of the mystery of the mind.

A strange phenomenon of the mind—account for it as we may—is that mistiness which, under some circumstances, envelops an idea the moment a doubt is suggested that we are in error respecting it. The spelling of a word, for example, is asked. We spell, as we believe, right. Immediately it is suggested—it may be by our own mind, or by the asker—that we have spelled it wrong. We begin to revolve it in our mind, and we frequently soon find, that the letters composing it have become so intermingled and transposed, as to render us unable to spell the word at all. Nay, we are even made to doubt whether it is the word in question, or not.

A similar phenomenon frequently presents itself in composing. We have written a paragraph, for example, and, on reading it over, the syntax, we will suppose, does not please us. We erase, transpose, or interline—perhaps do all three—and then re-read what is so altered. The paragraph begins to look misty—some expression seems to be improper—and we reflect in order to percieve, if we can, whether the sentence really be faulty, or not. And we find, that, the more we reflect, the more we become unable to satisfy ourselves on that point; until finally, we are in a complete fog, and doubts suggest themselves as to whether what we have written be respectable enough for any one, save ourselves, to read. A remedy for this condition of the perceptive faculty may be had in the turning the thoughts upon something else; leaving the subject in question for resumption at a future time.

A fact concerning the faculties of the mind, in common with that regarding the powers of the body, is, that the immaterial essence is not, at all times, in the condition for vigorous action. It is often weary. It may have been wearied either by direct communication with material objects; or, by its own inward reflections, or cogitations; or, again, it may have been made sluggish by a peculiar state of the body. So that there are times when the mind is lethargic, and really incapable of accomplishing what, at other times, it can, with ease.

There are persons who, not knowing, or not reflecting, that this condition is common to all minds, feel grievously vexed at themselves because they cannot accomplish as well at one time as at

another, a mental performance. With none others, perhaps, is this temporary mental incapacity more frequent than with the literary author. Many is the time he is obliged to lay aside his pen, because ideas are so tardy in coming, or because he cannot clothe those ideas in the language he would. It is said of Milton, that, when composing "Paradise lost," he was often unable to give his amenuensis more than thirty or forty lines at a composing.

Another fact—and one of incomputable importance—which experience attests and history illustrates, is, that the mind, to fulfil the purposes of its creation, must be free; that is, it must *be* at liberty, and *feel* at liberty, to think for itself. It must know that this freedom is emphatically its inalienable right, with which it has been endowed by its Creator. And then it will combat—as it ever should combat—all attempts to make it a mere machine, moved by the ideas and will of another. To the *dicta* of King, or of Priest it must never yield; but turn to ridicule that bugbear of "Divine right," which claims to control it.

There be, who, in matters of Religion, voluntarily resign their minds to those that serve in the sacerdotal office; and there be, also, those who are compelled to transfer all right and title in theirs to the same description of conscience-keeper. We pity both; the former for their weakness, the latter for their bondage.

When the Author of Christianity charged a handful of His disciples to "go preach the Gospel to every creature," does any one suppose that those disciples presumed, or imagined they had a right, to take possession of the intellects of men? Is it recorded of any one of them that he went about saying, *Thus say I*, instead of, "Thus saith the Lord?" On the contrary, on a certain occasion, when some persons who had just seen one of them exercise his miraculous power of healing disease, fell at an Apostle's feet, and would have worshipped him, that Apostle delayed not to bid them arise, assuring them that he was but a man like themselves. And what did an Apostle once confess? Even this, that all which Paul could do was to plant; and that Apollos could only water. These Apostles were but instruments, and their special duty was to "preach the Gospel;" by this means *reasoning* with and persuading men.

Now, if you have voluntarily surrendered to me, or if I have the power to take from you, the freedom of your mind, what folly to talk of *reasoning* with you. In either case, you are incapacitated from reasoning, at least to any practical purpose.

All this leads to the thought that professional partnerships, strictly so called—law and medicine for examples—must be repugnant to a mind jealous of its freedom. For, if the proposition of the unlimited diversity of perception be true, there will of necessity often be found in the minds of those constituting such partnerships, differences of opinion on a subject. Then, for each to maintain his own opinion, so as to give it a practical bearing, would,

in many cases, be ruinous to the partnership; certainly it would be an inciter to discord between the partners. On the other hand, for either to subscribe to the opinion of the other, thus rendering his own mind merely passive in the matter, would be making such subscriber dishonest, and on that account—if on no other—unfit to practice that which he professes.

Now, we can conceive how, in those commonly called business partnerships, men may differ in opinion on matters pertaining to their business affairs, and yet compromise no independence of mind; and we can conceive how good may result, notwithstanding the disagreement. But, in the case of the professional partnership, we cannot perceive any other result, or consequence, than that we have mentioned.

Fetter the human mind, and what do you not destroy? what do you not retard? You destroy that consciousness of superiority to the brute creation, which man was made to *feel*, as well as to possess; you destroy the lively sympathy, and the more tender humanity; you destroy manliness and independence. You retard the spread of knowledge; the advancement of science and the arts; and keep back all that is useful and ennobling.

Had Galileo been fettered in mind, as he was confined in body by the Inquisition, for the exercise of that mind, he never could have made those grand discoveries in astronomical science, which he did. Had Newton's been a fettered mind, we never had known from *him* about the compound nature of light, nor of the laws of gravitation. His Principia had never been given to the world. Had Franklin's mind been fettered, no investigations in electricity would have been pursued by him; nor would "Poor Richard's Almanac" have had an existence.

In the field of military science and exploit, if their minds had been bound, what could an Alexander, a Cæsar, a Napoleon, a Washington, have accomplished? Certainly not what they respectively did.

How glorious a creation is the human mind! In the freedom of its wonderful faculties, it has soared away, far beyond this earth, among the starry worlds, even into the region of the misty nebulæ Nor has it so soared without profit. By the powerful science of numbers—which emanated from itself—it has weighed and measured far distant worlds and computed their distances from us, and from the Sun. The mind invented the telescope, and by its aid we have been enabled to view the physiognomy of the planets in the Solar System; to observe their aspects, and note their revolutions. By that penetrating instrument, man has discovered belts around Jupiter, rings around Saturn, spots on the Sun, and mountains in the Moon.

Mind has traversed the Milky-way; and she has given a plausible reason for the phenomenon of the Zodiacal Light. The cause

of the Aurora Borealis she has also told, reasoning on the principle of analogous and simultaneous phenomena.

And still her march is ever onward and upward. New discoveries she is ever making; new inventions continually crown her unceasing efforts. Action! action! is her watchword. She slumbers not, nor sleeps. Her happiness consists in striving to attain a something she does not possess. And when one object after another is gained, she successively hopes for, and reaches after more. Let her have nothing to hope for; no prospect of good in the distance not yet attained, and she is miserable indeed.

But, with all her greatness, how fallible is the human mind! Every day's experience gives us evidence of this. We perceive it in the judgments she pronounces; in the opinions she advances; in her vascillation and indecision; in her prejudices and biases. We perceive it in her literary productions,—for the best of these contain contradictions, or opposing sentiments. True, then, it is, that here, in everything, we "see through a glass darkly," and that perfection is not in man.

Yet, this fallible mind is immortal. If not so, why her wonderful faculties?

> "————————To toil and eat,
> Then make our bed in darkness, needs no thought.
> What superfluities are reasoning souls!
> Oh! give Eternity, or thought destroy."

And, Oh! man,

> "Know'st the importance of a soul immortal?
> Behold this midnight glory: worlds on worlds!
> Amazing pomp; redouble this amaze;
> Ten thousand add; add twice ten thousand more;
> Then weigh the whole, one soul outweighs them all,
> And calls th' astonishing magnificence
> Of unintelligent creation, poor."

RANDOM THOUGHTS BY AN OCCASIONAL WRITER.

> "Together let us beat this ample field;
> Try what the open, what the covert yield."
> POPE.

There is a difficulty attending an author's introduction to the public, of which no one, who finds himself in that attitude, will remain insensible.

Addison imagined it was quite essential to every reader to be

informed whether his author was a black or a fair man, mild or choleric in his temper, married or a bachelor.

While Dr. Johnson seems to have regretted that, in likeness to the conventional rules of common salutation, usage had not in this particular fixed on some universally acknowledged formulary, as convenient as the "Good morning, Sir," by which one arrests and holds the respectful attention of a stranger whom he has never seen before.

With the embryo author the important questions appear to be, what topic shall he introduce, what shall he say first; then, what account shall he give of himself, that, his motives and pretensions being known, his works may be duly appreciated.

So far as I find myself standing in the way of these reflections, I must be allowed to say that I have no very serious concern about them.

One who has always conceived more pleasure in satisfying himself that he is right, than in any favor with which others might look upon his views, is likely to bear with some composure the censure, which is implied by a difference of opinions.

And one who has never set up any pretensions to literary merit, cannot be greatly pained to find that he has not placed a proper estimate on his own genius; at the same time that he is conscious, from that fact, of being measurably shielded against the effects of criticism.

Nor need THE OCCASIONAL WRITER have more care for the subjects—first or last—which shall invite the powers of his fugitive pen.

The "Western Journal" proclaims its devotion to Literature and Art. Here certainly is a wide field. Whether your correspondent chance to track along the paths of science, morals, or religion; whether you find him lingering around the shrines of the arts; or holding dalliance with the Muses in their retired seats, or wantoning in the realms of poesy he will have the consolation of knowing, he has not passed his proper limits; has not trespassed on forbidden ground.

It is, perhaps, best that the imaginative, the solid, and the various, should be mingled for alternate pleasure and instruction.

These changes would appear to be as necessary to the sound and healthy action of the mind, as the alternations of heat and cold, of rest and labor, in the body, to its pleasurable or salubrious habit.

Too much attention to one class of subjects tends frequently to contract and bias the intellectual faculties: while more extended and varied researches expand and liberalize them.

It is a subject for public congratulation that this most valuable and interesting journal offers so broad a field for the useful employment of every variety of talent and learning. This enlarged spirit of liberality, on the part of the proprietors, is not only highly

creditable to their taste and judgment, but is in happy unison with the spirit of the age.

It does not matter, at this time of day, that an Editor may have resolved to devote his paper to Politics entirely—to Religion entirely—or to Science entirely.

Once an Editor, he can no longer stand on so narrow a platform.

His business, thenceforward, is with the world; and the human mind, in all its departments, is the mighty field of his labors.

To persuade, to instruct, to amuse, to bring light out of darkness, to make the crooked paths straight, to dispel the vapors of prejudice, to lead step by step back from the quagmires of error and blindness the minds of men to the highlands of truth and reason, is the difficult but ever glorious purpose of him who assumes the control of the public press. To effect such ends, he must needs draw upon the largest resources.

If the human mind, in all its vastness, is the theatre of his operations, human knowledge, in all its boundless variety, is the means which he must put into requisition.

What Quinctillian has said of the Orator, may be aptly applied to the modern Editor. "Whatever lies within the regions of speech," said that master of his art, "ought to command the attention of the orator." Whatever the pen can write for the benefit of mankind, say I, deserves the consideration of the Editor. And why? Because, as a professor of mechanics would inform us, he can bring to bear so many more levers on the object he is lifting.

Mind, the public mind especially, is a mazy labyrinth, and he whose observations are most extensive, will discover the most avenues by which it may be threaded, will find the ways and means of opening a larger number of its clandestine portals and throwing the light of knowledge into the darksome chambers beneath.

Knowledge is a unit, and its devotees are brethren. The lights of the sciences burned on either side of the pathway that went up to the temple of wisdom and mutually illuminated the footsteps of the votaries who knelt at the shrine of Minerva. Why, therefore, may not an established fact in Optics shed light upon a difficulty in Hydrostatics, or the discoveries of the mental philosopher lend an argument to elucidate a vexed question in the abstruse science of Political Economy?

The foregoing reflections must plead my apology for aspiring to become an occasional, perhaps, a random writer for the "Western Journal."

I shall discuss, if you please, Messrs. Editors, no subject much in detail, and, in my correspondence with you, insist upon the privilege so long indulged by me, and now more than ever adapted to the infirmities of age, of doing much as I choose.

I shall therefore consult my own convenience as to how, when, and what, I shall write.

Maintaining a becoming respect towards all persons, I shall demand the same for myself. I shall never dogmatize with———
———or browbeat my readers, nor set down to their miserable prejudices a failure to perceive the wisdom of my precepts, the beauty of my example.

In short, I have set up reason as my guide, and with the best resolution I have, I intend to follow her lead through evil and through good report. But stop, sirs! Why that frown, which my quizzing glass informs, is gathering on the brow editorial?

Ah, I have it:—You begin to imagine, I am one of those crabbed old fellows, who has grown so fond of himself, and formed such peculiar notions of REASON, that he can never observe her Ladyship's presence, unless she appears in a frock of dimity and a plaited ruff, according to the antiquated fashions of the age in which he was reared.

If such suspicions are really entertained, you will find on better acquaintance, I think, they are groundless.

It was an important part of my early teaching to distinguish between things and their appendages.

It is not the apparel of my mistress that endears her to me.

I could love her alike in a suit of lace, or in rudest buff; or glittering in jewels and diamonds, or without them.

It is the boldness and elevation of her countenance, ever beaming with a holy radiance; it is the fire of immortality that burns in her eye, and illumines her whole mien; it is the heavenly serenity and benignity of her temper, that proclaims her kindred of the Gods, and distinguishes her to my fancy from the thousand makeshifts of the day.

Thus sung the inspired bard:—

> "Truth is a towering dame, divine her air:
> In native bloom she walks the world in state.
> But falsehood is a meretricious fair,
> That's painted mean, and hobbling in her gait:—
> Dares not look up, with resolution's mien;
> Sneaking hides, and hopes not to be seen;
> Forever haunted by the ghost of doubt;
> Trembling, lest the world should find her out."

I have looked into history and marked her progress among the nations; and seen her dispensing from both her hands the blessings of peace. I have observed where she paused; and on that spot of earth the simple power of her majestic presence enlarged the area of human rights, and shrunk the sinews of overgrown, relentless power.

I looked again whither her footsteps wandered, and saw plenty following after.

I have beheld her presiding in a Grecian Areopagus, a Roman Senate, a Parliament of Britain, and an American Congress, and always with equal admiration.

Strike me, but hear me, is the simple and touching eloquence of her tongue.

In Heathen, Jew, or Christian, I bow in willing homage to her beautiful behests.

To my fair readers, of whom it may be my lot to speak, I would say: I am too old and, I hope, too honest, for flattery.

If I speak for them, it will be in the hope of making them wiser and happier.

If ever my erring pen shall indite a line to stimulate a motive in one innocent female bosom to mar its own blessed peace, or place in the heart of husband, parent, friend, a thorn to rankle there for life; it shall indite a thousand more, to exorcise the horrid fiend, and expel it forever.

I am but too well satisfied that the most beautiful woman in the world, who has nothing to recommend her but the comeliness of her person, is a poor, poor thing:

> "Frail as the leaf in Autumn's yellow bower;
> Dust upon the wind, and dew upon the flower!"

a miserable mendicant upon the giddy crowd for favors unsubstantial as the wind; a seeker after alms who does not always receive from a cold, uncharitable world the pity that she craves.

I believe, too, that every *good woman*, whatever her sphere in life, is endued with an *immortal beauty*, more precious to her family and friends, than all the exquisite odors which are wafted for many leagues from groves of spices, by the shores of "Araby, the Blessed."

> "Ah, friend! to dazzle, let the *vain* design:—
> To *raise the thought*, and *touch the heart*, be *thine!*
> *That charm* shall grow, while *what* fatigues the ring,
> Flaunts and goes down *an unregarded thing.*"

SHAKSPEARE EVERLASTING.
1813.

FROM THE GERMAN OF GOETHE.

So much has been said already about Shakspeare, that it might appear, as if nothing more remained to be said; and yet this is the peculiarity of the Spirit, that it is always spirit-stirring. On this occasion I will contemplate Shakespeare in more respects than one, and particularly in the first place as a Poet in general; then in comparison with the ancients and moderns; and at last as peculiarly dramatic Poet. I will endeavor to disclose what effect the imitation of his style produces upon us, and what in general it may produce. In giving my assent to what has been already said, I may perhaps repeat, but in the expression of my dissent will be short and positive, without involving myself in strife and contradiction. Here, then, in the first place I will treat on the first point.

SHAKSPEARE AS A POET IN GENERAL.

The highest point at which a human being can attain, is the consciousness of his own disposition and thoughts; that knowledge of himself, which gives him an introduction and even thorough insight into other and different kinds of dispositions-of-mind. Now there are men who are born with a natural talent this way, and such improve by experience to practical ends. From this arises the ability to win something of the world and of business in the highest sense. The Poet, too, is born with this talent, but he improves it not in regard to immediate, earthly aims, but to a high, spirituous, universal aim. Now when we call Shakspeare one of the greatest Poets, we understand at the same time, that no one discerned the world so easily as he, that no one, who expressed his intuitive perceptions, placed the reader in a higher degree in a state of consciousness with the world. It becomes perfectly transparent before us: we find ourselves at once as the confidants of virtue and vice, of the great and small, of the noble and corrupt, and all this, yes more too, by the simplest means. But do we ask after this means, it appears as if it were working before our eyes: yet we are deceived. Shakspeare's works are not for the eyes of the body. I will endeavor to explain myself.

The eye may truly be said to be the clearest sense, through which the easiest transmission is possible. But the internal sense is still clearer, and through word it obtains the highest and quickest transmission; for this is peculiarly copious, while that which we receive through the eye, appears before us considered in itself as strange, and by no means so profoundly influential. Now Shakspeare throughout addresses our internal sense; through this, the power-

of-imagination animates the ideal world, and thus a complete effect springs forth, of which we know not how to give any account; for herein consists the very foundation of that illusion, that it is all transpiring before our eyes. But let one contemplate the Shakspearian pieces minutely, they include the sensuous deed much less, than the spirituous word. He lets that happen, which may be easily imagined, yes, which is better imagined than seen. Hamlet's Ghost, Macbeth's Witches, many horrible things maintain their worth through the power of imagination, and the variety of little interludes are esteemed only on that account. All such things pass by us while reading easily and with propriety, while they appear oppressive and disturbing, yes offensive in the representation.

Shakspeare works through the living word, and this is delivered best by reading: the attention of the hearer is not distracted, neither by proper nor by improper representation. There is no higher and purer enjoyment, than to allow oneself with closed eyes or with a natural accurate voice, not to declaim, but to recite a Shakspearian piece. One follows the smooth thread, on which he spins out the event. According to the marks of the character we form certain images, but we experience peculiarly what transpires internally by a passage from words and speeches, and here all the characters in the play appear to be arranged so as not to leave us in darkness or in doubt about anything. Heroes and soldiers, Lords and slaves, Kings and people, conspire to this, yes the subordinate figures often tend as actively hereto as the principal characters. All that which rustles through the air secretly affecting a great occurence in nature, which, in moments of extraordinary events, conceals itself in the hearts of men, is uttered forth; what is anxiously locked and secreted in the mind is here freely and flowingly brought to light; we experience the truth of life and know not how.

Shakspeare associated himself with the world-spirit; he permeated the world; as from the one, so nothing is concealed from either; but as it is the business of the world-spirit to keep a secret before, yes, often after the deed, so it is the sense of the Poet to divulge the secret, and to make us his confidants before, or at least certainly in the deed. The viciously powerful, the narrow-minded good, the passionately enraptured, the quietly contemplating, all carry their hearts in their hands, often against all probability; every one is candid and loquacious. Enough, the secret must out, though the stones proclaim it; even inanimate objects are impelled towards this point; all subordinate nature converses: the elements, heaven- earth- and sea-phenomena, thunder and lightning; wild animals raise their voices, often apparently like figures, but always blended in action.

Even the civilized world must here yield its treasures; arts, sciences, manufactures, and commerce, all offer their gifts. Shak-

spear's invention is a great animated Fair, and he must thank his father-land for the abundance.

Above all, England, the sea-surrounded, begirt with mists and clouds, is busy with all the countries of the world. The Poet lived at a worthy and important time, and placed its culture, yes, misculture with great clearness before our minds. He would not indeed influence us so much if he himself had not been equal to his active time. No one despised material costume more than he; he knew right well the internal costume of humanity, and here all men are equal. Some say he has represented the Roman exquisitely. I think not; they are plain incarnate Englishmen, but they are real men, men from the ground up, and who might bear the Roman *toga* with a good grace. When we have properly disposed of this point, we find his anachronism in the highest degree worthy of praise, and it is on account of his disregard of external costume that his works possess such vitality.

And now let these few words suffice, by which Shakspeare's merit is in no wise exhausted. His friends and adorers would have many things yet to add. Yet I would make one remark here: scarcely ever can one find a poet whose separate works always have another meaning at their foundation and are effective altogether as may be proved by his own.

So provocation runs through the whole of Coriolanus, that the mass of the people will not confess the preeminence of their superiors. In Cæsar all is drawn to the idea, that the superiors are unwilling to have the highest place occupied, because they erroneously fancy that they may exercise proper influence as a body. Antony and Cleopatra speak with a thousand tongues that pleasure and action are incompatible. And so one would by further examination admire him yet more frequently.

II.—SHAKSPEARE, IN COMPARISON WITH THE ANCIENTS AND MODERNS.

The interest, which Shakspeare's great spirit stimulates, consists within the world, for when even divination and phrenzy, dreams, longings, prodigies, fairies and gnomes, apparitions, sorcerers and charmers form a magical element, through which at the proper moment his poetical invention moves, yet these phantoms are by no means the chief ingredients of his works, but the truth and stability of his life is the great base on which they rest. On this account all that is written by him, appears so pithy and lasting. It has been moreover already observed, that he cannot very properly be classed among the poets of modern times, which are called romantic, but with much more propriety, among those of *naive* taste, there his worth rests peculiarly at the present time, as he scarcely touches the tenderest side, indeed he touches only on the most external points of longing.

But notwithstanding he is, more nearly contemplated, a decided

modern poet, separated from the ancients by a wide gulf, not perhaps according to the outer form, which may here be altogether obviated, but according to the most internal deepest sense.

But in the first place I would guard myself and say, that it is by no means my object to employ the following terminology as exhausting and definitive; and not so much to add new antitheses to those already known, but rather to indicate that it is already included in those.

These antitheses are:

Antique,	Modern.
Naive,	Sentimental.
Heathen,	Christian.
Heroic,	Romantic.
Real,	Ideal.
Necessity,	Freedom.
Compulsion,	Free will.

The greatest affliction, as well as the least, to which man can be exposed, springs out of each and every indwelling incongruity between compulsion and free will, as also between compulsion and consummation, free will and consummation, and these are the things which perplex a man so often in the course of his life.

The least embarrassment which arises from a trifling error, which may be deemed unexpected and harmless, places the embarrassed person in a ridiculous position. The greatest embarrassment, on the contrary, unextricated or inextricable, produces tragic periods.

The incongruity between compulsion and consummation is predominant in the poetry of the ancients; among the moderns the incongruity between free will and consummation is predominant. This prevailing difference between the remaining antitheses may also be perceived, and an attempt be made to carry it out. In both epochs, at one time this, at another that side, I say is predominant; but because compulsion and free will cannot be radically separated among men, both views must be entertained at the same time throughout, even when one is prevailing, and the other subordinate.

Compulsion is imposed upon man; necessity is a hard law; man applies free will upon himself: the will of man is his kingdom of heaven. A continued compulsion is onerous, inability of consummation fearful, a constant free will delightful, and with a firm will one may look with composure upon the inability of consummation.

Let one contemplate card playing as an art of poetry; even this consists in both of these elements. The form of the play associated with accident, represents here the place of compulsion, just as the ancients knew it under the form of destiny; the free will, associated with the ability of the players, works against it. In this sense I might call a game of whist *antique*. The form of

this play restrains the chance, even the free will itself. I must order a long train of accidents, which cannot be avoided, analogically with the cards which come to my hands dealt by fellow and opposing players. At Ombre and similar games the case is otherwise. Here are many doors open to my free will and ventures. I may deny the cards which fall to my lot, let it pass in different senses, throw half or all of them away, call for help from fortune, even by an inverted dealing, derive the greatest advantage from the worst cards, and so this art of play resembles in an admirable degree the modern art of thinking and of poetry.

The ancient tragedies depend upon an unavoidable compulsion, which is only sharpened and quickened by antagonistic free-will. Here is the seat of all the fearful things of the oracle, the region in which Œdipus sat enthroned over all. In Antigione compulsion appears to us more tender than duty, and in how many transformations is it represented.

But all compulsion is despotic. It pertains to reason as the moral and municipal law, or to nature as the law of existence, of increase and decrease, of life and of death. We shudder before all this without considering that the object thereby aimed at, is the welfare of the whole. Free-will on the other hand is free, appears freely and favorably to individuals. Moreover free-will is flattering, and it must take possession of men, as soon as they know its nature. It is the God of the present age; abandoned to him we fear for all that are opposed to him, and herein lies the cause why our art, as also our style of mind remains constantly separate from the antique. By compulsion tragedy became great and strong, by willingness weak and small. In the last way the so called drama arose in which the monstrous compulsion was subdued by free-will: but even while this our weakness comes to our aid, we feel affected when we, after anxious expectation, arrive at last only at a sorrowful composure.

When I now turn from these pre-contemplations, to Shakspeare, the wish arises, that my reader may make the comparison and application for himself. Here Shakspeare is presented unparalleled whilst he unites the ancient and modern in an overwhelming manner. Free-will and compulsion endeavor to fix themselves throughout in his pieces in equal measure; both contend vigorously, yet it always happens that free-will is the worsted.

No one perhaps has fixed the first great combination of free-will and compulsion in individual characters in a more masterly manner than he. The person, or the individual, viewed on the side of character, *shall;* he is restrained, determined to a peculiarity, but as a human being he *will;* he is unlimited and demands the universal. Here then arises a more internal conflict, and this gives Shakspeare precedence of all others. But in addition, an external conflict is united with this, which, on this account, is often so heated, that an insufficient free will, by stirring causes, becomes exalted to

indispensable compulsion. I have lately referred to the maxims in Hamlet, but they are found repeated by Shakspeare. For as Hamlet is led to ruin by the Ghost, so is Macbeth by the Witches, Hekate, and the super-witch, his wife, Brutus by his friend, in which condition they are not equal to their lot; so also in Coriolanus one finds something similar; enough, a free-will that transcends the power of the individual is modern. But as Shakspeare does not arouse it from within, but allows it to be brought about by external causes, thereby he manifests the art of compulsion, and approaches the *antique*. For all the heroes of poetical antiquity, would do only what is possible for man, and thence arises the beautiful equilibrium between free will, compulsion and consummation; yet his compulsion is always ruder than what we might expect, when our admiration is aroused. The necessity which more or less, or perfectly excludes all freedom is no longer agreeable with our disposition; nevertheless Shakspeare has approached this in his own way, for while he makes necessity moral, he thus unites the old and new world to our delightful astonishment. If we would learn something of him, here is the point which we must study in his school. Instead of seeking after our romantic style, which may not be reproved or disregarded, to exalt it exclusively beyond moderation, and to yield oneself up to it in a one-sided way, whereby the strong, substantial, vigorous side is mistaken and allowed to go to ruin; we should seek to unite within ourselves only so much the more, every great and apparently irreconcilable contrast, as a great and inimitable master, which we prize so highly, and often without knowing why, beyond all pre-conception, has already performed in a really miraculous manner. It is true he had this advantage, that he came just at the harvest-time, that he, in the course of his life, dared influence a protestant land, where bigotted opinions were quiet for a long while, so that a true naturally religious man, like Shakspeare, remained in freedom—unbound by any precise form—to unfold religiously his own pure internal religion.

The foregoing was written in the summer of 1813, let no one criticize and find fault, but only remember the above sayings, that at the present time also there was an individual attempt, merely to show how the different poetical spirits endeavored, in their own way, to unite and dissolve every extraordinary contrariety, among such a variety of presented appearances. To say more would be as superfluous as if one should call attention from all sides since the time alluded to, to this question; and beyond that we have obtained an excellent exposition. Above all others I will mention Blumner's highly valuable treatise on the idea of destiny in the tragedy of Æschylus, and of the excellent review in the supplemental pages of the Jenaian Literary Gazette. Wherefore without proceeding further on this, I will turn to the third point, which relates immediately to the German theatre and to that peculiarity which Schiller has seized upon to confirm it for the future.

MUNIFICENT BEQUEST.

THE WILL OF THE LATE JUDGE MULLANPHY.

Those only who have observed the diseased and destitute condition of a portion of the foreign emigrants who arrive in St. Louis, can fully appreciate the value of the bequest made in their behalf, or the enlightened benevolence which dictated the last will of the late Judge Bryan Mullanphy of this city. It is natural that one possessed of property should bequeath it to his relatives, or personal friends; and hence the individual who regards the claims of suffering humanity as being paramount to those of his immediate relations, provided their condition is above want, may be regarded as a moral hero.

The immediate relations of the deceased are all in the enjoyment of large fortunes, and doubtless rejoice in this manifestation of his moral worth.

The property bequeathed to the city of St. Louis, in trust for the benefit of foreign emigrants, is estimated to be worth two hundred thousand dollars.

The following is a copy of the will as published in the Missouri Republican:

"I, Bryan Mullanphy, do make and declare the following to be my last will and testament—

One equal undivided third part of all my property, real, personal and mixed, I leave to the City of St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, in trust and to be and constitute a fund to furnish relief to all poor emigrants and travellers coming to St. Louis on their way *bona fide* to settle in the West.

I do appoint Felix Coste and Peter G. Camden to be executors of this my last will and testament, and of any other will or executory devise that I may leave.—All and any such document will be found to be olograph, all in my own hand writing.

BRYAN MULLANPHY.

[Seal.]

The above was signed in the presence of witnesses and deposited with the Mayor of the City of St. Louis 31st August, 1849,* and was admitted to Probate at the late June term of the Probate Court for St. Louis county.

* Judge Mullanphy died on thed 15th ay of June, 1851.

EMIGRATION OF PAUPERS.

[From the New York Sun.]

During the last three or four weeks, several hundred paupers have been landed at New York in a starving and diseased condition. The majority of these, it appears, are taken from the poor house, in the South of Ireland, by the land owners, on whose property they have been living, and who, for their support, are forced to pay poor rates, which are levied on the land at so much per acre. It may be seen from this, how desirous these land proprietors are to get rid of such burdens. Accordingly, they take them from the poor houses, or off the land, and contract with the captains of English vessels to ship them to some American port at a reduced rate per head, in consideration of the number. The food they receive during the passage, is of the very worst description, and this, combined with the sickness consequent on a long sea voyage, renders them fit subjects for the hospital, on their arrival. Some are so exhausted with disease and hunger, that they often do not survive the voyage, while others die a few days after landing. On Sunday last, about one hundred of these miserable creatures might be seen in an almost naked and famishing state, in Broadway, begging the charity of the passers. Many of these were formerly honest, independent farmers, in their own country, before the famine, and bad legislation, together, reduced them to poverty and starvation. There are also, we understand, a large number living in the last stages of disease in some of the most loathsome cellars at the end of Washington and Greenwich streets where they are unable to obtain that medical attention which their condition requires.

Among those who are engaged in sending these unfortunate beings to this country, the Marquis of Lansdowne, and the Knight of Kerry, have rendered themselves conspicuous. These are at present engaged, as we learn from some of their former tenants, in making arrangements for the whole-sale deportation of the paupers on their estates, numbering altogether two or three thousand persons.

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In his line, for gentlemen's wear; and where he will be pleased to see his old friends and customers, and their friends with them; and assures those who may favor him with their patronage, that they shall receive his personal attention, and his best efforts to please. Very respectfully, your ob't servant,

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October, 1850.

Fruit Trees and Shrubbery,

FOR sale by JOHN SIGERSON & BROTHERS, at their fruit farm and nursery. This establishment is located seven miles South of St. Louis, Mo. There are Omnibus Coaches running daily from the City within one half mile of the establishment. The Nursery and Gardens are open at all times (Sundays excepted) for the reception of visitors. Horticulturists and Amateurs are respectfully invited to visit the establishment and examine for themselves. In directing the attention of the public to their nursery, they would remark that one of the firm, (Mr. James Sigerson,) has been engaged in the above business for the last twenty-five years; during that time he has tested many of the varieties now growing. This, with the assurance on their part of an intention to increase the number of their trees, as well as to add to their assortment from year to year, furnishes a strong guarantee to persons wishing to make choice selections of fruit, that they can always be supplied. Their prices for trees will be as reasonable as at any similar establishment East or West, and when desired, trees will be delivered free of charge in the city or on steamboats; packed in good order for their destination.

☞All letters addresed to John Sigerson, St. Louis, or to James Sigerson, Carondelet, will meet with prompt attention.

JOHN SIGERSON & BROTHERS.

Missouri Foundry.

S. J. SMITH. T. FAIRBRIDGE. W. D. WOOD. H. B. HAWKINS.

FAIRBRIDGE, WOOD & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS of Castings, Iron Railings, Iron Window Shutters, Vaults and Doors; Plumbago Concrete Fire Proof Safes; also, Garrison's Portable Saw Mills.

Office and Warehouse No. 118 North Third Street.
Foundry, corner Clark Avenue and Eighth Street. June, 1851.

St. Louis Saw and Scale Factory.

LEE, GAGE & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS of every description of Saws and Scales. Factory on Broadway, North St. Louis. Office and Wareroom No. 86 Main Street, up stairs. June, 1851.

ROLIN CLARK, JOHN RENFREW, } PHILANDER BRALEY, ALEXANDER CROSIER.

Eagle Foundry and Engine Shop.

NORTH west corner of Main and Biddle streets. Manufacturers of all kinds of machinery, boilers and sheet iron work, portable circular saw mills always on hand, all orders executed with fidelity and despatch.

Home Mutual Fire and Marine Insurance Company of St. Louis.

NOTWITHSTANDING the heavy loss sustained by this company in May last the stock notes now on hand amount to $350,000. The stock notes of the company are secured by lien upon real estate and approved endorsers. Office, No. 120 North Third street.

Directors:—I. L. Garrison, A. P. Ladew, P. Salisbury, John Whitehill, Jos. A. Eddy, Henry Kayser, D. D. Page, Theron Barnum, John Kern.

ISAAC L. GARRISON, President,
D. D. PAGE, Treasurer,
PHILANDER SALISBURY, Secretary.

John S. Watson,

(Late of Wilgus & Watson.)

NO. 51° 40′ Pine street, between 2d and 3d, next door above the old s tand of Wilgus & Watson, house, steamboat, sign and ornamental painter, grainer, glazier, whitener and paper hanger; also, dealer in all the latest styles of French and American paper hangings. He keeps constantly on hand and ready for sale mixed paints of all colors, oils, varnishes, Japan, turpentine, white lead, putty, and a large and superior assortment of French and American window glass, which will be cut to any size to suit customers.

☞ Particular attention paid to estimating on houses or steamboats. nov.

Saint Louis Furniture Store,

WM. M. HARLOW, proprietor. Manufactures and keeps constantly on hand every variety of household furniture, matresses, window blinds, willow ware, &c., &c.

Also, manufactures to order every article in his line, with despatch. Orders from abroad promptly attended to, and goods carefully packed. All goods warranted as recommended.

New Warehouse, No. 88 Second street, between Olive and Locust streets, St. Louis, Mo.

New Madrid County Records.

PERSONS wishing to obtain transcripts of records in New Madrid county, can procure them without delay by addressing the undersigned. And to avoid the inconvenience of remitting small sums, the records will be directed to George Pegrim & Co., St. Louis, who will deliver the same upon the payment of the fees.

WM. MOSELEY,
March, 1851. Recorder of New Madrid County, Mo.

Missouri State Mutual Insurance Company.

DIRECTORS:—John O'Fallon, C. M. Valleau, Reuben Knox, Daniel D. Page, Oliver Bennett, John Sigerson, John S. McCune, Joseph A. Eddy, True W. Hoit.

This company is established upon the mutual principles of insurance, and is emphatically a home institution. The fire risks of this company are extended into all parts of this State. Its earnings are never employed or invested in stocks or real estate, but kept for the prompt liquidation of losses, and under the immediate control of the Directors. Every person insuring with this company becomes interested in its success, and its profits instead of being divided among a few stockholders, belong to those who insure in this company.

The Directors aware of the importance of a well secured fund, reliable in case of loss, and ample under all ordinary calamity, assure the public that they have already a pledged fund, ample and reliable for any contingency, with a monthly increase of premiums of over ten thousand dollars. For the length of time this company has been in operation (six months) its business has been extended into all parts of the State and the city, and has received from the public a liberal patronage, which has placed it upon a permanent basis.

By an act incorporating this company, the parties insuring property therein, are entitled to the entire profits of the institution, the premium notes are also pledged by the charter for the payment of losses.

The portfolio of the company is at all times open to the inspection of its members and those wishing to make insurance with it. Policies are issued from thirty days to six years, thereby effecting a permanent insurance, with a return premium of from fifteen to fifty per cent, according to the term of insurance.

Agents for this company, may be found in all the principal towns in the State to whom application may be made.

Office of the company over E. W. Clark & Brother, corner of Main and Olive streets, Exchange building, where insurance will be effected at the tariff rates of premium.

C. M. VALLEAU, President,

H. D. BACON, Treasurer.

S. F. LEDYARD, Secretary.

John Loughborough,

ATTORNEY AND COUNSELLOR AT LAW,

OFFICE—No. 56 Pine street, near Third, (adjoining that of the Clerk of the Supreme Court.)

Woods, Christy & Co.,

WHOLESALE dealers in Dry Goods, No. 75 Main street, St. Louis, Mo.
James Woods, William T. Christy, James C. Christy, Robert K. Woods.

J. Henwood,

Hat Manufacturer, 72 Chesnut Street, St. Louis, Missouri.

Wolf & Engert,

IMPORTERS and Dealers in Paper-Hangings, colors and Fancy Papers, No. 49 South Second street, between Elm and Myrtle, St. Louis, Mo. Constantly on hand, all kinds of Oil and Water Colors, Paper-Hangings, Chimney Screnes, Tester Pieces, Window shades, Marble, Marroquin, Gold and Silver Paper, Painters' and Dutch Gold Bronze, Lead Pencils, Paint Boxes, Paint Brushes, Drawing Paper &c. April, 1850.

F. Dings & Co.,

IMPORTERS of German, French and English Fancy Goods, and Manufacturers of all kinds of

BRUSHES.

No. 47, Main street, St. Louis, Mo.

THE BANKING HOUSES OF ST. LOUIS.

D. D. PAGE. E. D. BACON

Page & Bacon,

Banking House, No. 139 Main street, St, Louis; next door to the Bank of Missouri.

N. B. Deposits received, Drafts and Notes from all parts of the Union collected, and exchange on the East and South for sale at all times.

Also, Branches of Exchange and Banking Houses at San Francisco and Sacramento Cities, California.

Loker, Reneck & Co.,

Bankers and Exchange Dealers, No. 132 Main st., west side, third door north of Pine st., St. Louis, Mo.

Interest paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased and sight exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale at the lowest rates in sums to suit purchasers.

John J. Anderson & Co.,

Bankers and Exchange Dealers, on the North-West corner of Main and Olive streets, St. Louis Mo.

Interest paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased and exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale at the lowest rates.

L A. Benoist & Co.,

Bankers and Exchange Dealers, No. 83 Main st., east side, third door north of Olive st.. St. Louis, Mo.

Interest paid to depositors, drafts and notes collected, sight and time bills purchased, and sight exchange on the eastern cities and New Orleans for sale, at the lowest rates, in sums to suit purchasers.

S. HASKELL. JA'S. E. FRANCISCUS. J. H. BILLING.

EXCHANGE BANK.

Haskell & Co.,

Bankers and Exchange Dealers, corner of Main and Vine Streets,

ST. LOUIS. MO.

BUY and sell exchange on all the eastern, western, and southern cities; all kinds of bank notes, and Foreign Gold and Silver.

☞ Land warrants bought and sold, and fully guaranteed.

☞ Collections made on all cities, and promptly remitted for, at current rates of exchange, *free of charge.*

☞ Interest allowed on deposits on time, or to be checked for at sight.

The highest price paid for Gold Dust.

JOHN HOW. WM. CLAFLIN. ROBT. COOK. JNO. A. ALLEN.

How, Claflin & Cook,

DEALERS in Boots and Shoes, Hides, Leather, Shoemakers' Findings, Tanners' Oil, Curriers' Tools, &c, .412 Main Street, (opposite the Bank,) St. Louis, Mo. April, 1851.

C. M. & H. M. Warren,

MANUFACTURERS of Warren's Improved Fire and Water-Proof Composition Roofs, and Roofing Materials, which are kept constantly on hand and for sale (with directions for use) to those in the country who may desire to adopt this mode of roofing.

Office and Manufactory, East side Second Street, between Almond and Poplar, St. Louis, Mo. Office Hours from 10 to 11 o'clock A, M. and 4 to 5 P. M.

Jonathan Jones'

COMMERCIAL COLLEGE, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Incorporated by the General Assembly, January 24, 1849,

WITH full authority "to grant diplomas, award degrees, confer honors, and exercise all and singular, the privileges common to Commercial Colleges, authorized by law in other States."—Charter, Sec. 2.

JONATHAN JONES, Master of Accounts—President and acting Professor of theory and practice of book-keeping, commercial calculations, commercial correspondence, etc., etc.

JAMES W. RICHARDSON, Practical Accountant—Permanent Associate in book-keeping Department.

CHARLES STEWART, Professor of Mathematics—In special charge of commercial calculations.

FLETCHER M. HAIGHT, Esq., Professor of Commercial Law.

JOSEPH P. HORTIZ, Professor of Penmanship.

N. B.—For information in regard to the terms, the course of instruction, and all business connected with the above, call at the "Book-keeping Department," corner of Fourth and Chesnut streets, or address Jonathan Jones, St. Louis, Mo.

The St. Louis Union

BOOK AND JOB PRINTING ESTABLISHMENT,

No. 35 LOCUST STREET between Main and Second, St. Louis Mo.

JOHN D. M'MURRAY. JAMES M. DORMAN.

M'Murray & Dorman,

IRON Railing Manufactory corner of Third and Pine streets continue to manufacture at the above establishment, all kinds of Plain and Ornamental Iron Railing, Balconies, Bank and Jail Doors, Book Safes, Fire-Vaults, Iron Window Shutters, Iron Awnings, Lightning Rods, Bedsteads, Gratings, and in fact, any thing which can be formed of Iron.

John Mullery,

PREMIUM Horse Shoer, in the alley, opposite the Post Office, will as usual pay particular attention to the various disease effecting the feet of horses, and will guarantee to give general satisfaction in either of the above departments.

M. Tarver,

ATTORNEY AND COUNSELLOR AT LAW,

No. 97 *Chesnut Street, St. Louis,*

(TWO DOORS WEST OF THE POST OFFICE.)

T. F. Risk.

ATTORNEY AND COUNSELLOR AT LAW,

Office—No. 97 *Chesnut Street,*

St. Louis, Mo.

Charles & Hammond,

BOOK AND JOB PRINTERS,

Chesnut Street,

St. Louis, Mo.

Slate Yard.

JOHN M. CANNON, Slater,

No. 15 *and* 17 *South Sixth street, St. Louis,*

WOULD respectfully inform the public that, having now completed his arrangements, he is prepared to make contracts for any work in his line. He has in his employ practical slaters, and is well prepared to execute in a workmanlike manner, and with dispatch, all orders entrusted to his care. He keeps constantly on hand, and for sale, Welsh slate, ridge tiles, sheet lead, slate flagging, slate hearths, copper, brass and iron slating nails, Rosendale cement, and all other articles pertaining to his business. He will strip from roofs, zinc, sheet iron, tin, or other covering, and substitute therefor slate. Slate removed from one roof, can be used to advantage on another, which is not the case with any other roofing material. His terms are such as cannot but prove satisfactory. Apply as above.

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The Western Journal is designed to embrace every subject connected with Agriculture, Commerce, Manufactures, Mechanic Arts, Mines, and Internal Improvement.

A portion of the work will be appropriated to Statistics, which will be collected and arranged with reference to the leading subjects contained in the respective numbers.

The development of the vast resources of the valley of the Mississippi, and the improvement of the intellectual and social condition of its inhabitants, will be constantly kept in view; and the leading article of each number will be devoted to the advancement of these objects. In attempting to illustrate and give direction to the economy connected with the leading pursuits of the country, the Editors have undertaken more than has been done, or proposed by any other journal with which they are acquainted. And it is by their labors in this department, mainly, that they expect to make the work useful.

Contributions are solicited on all subjects properly embraced in the design of the work.

☞Owing to the enlargement of the work, six numbers will hereafter constitute a volume, and a general Index will be made out to accompany the 6th and 12th numbers.

☞ Publishers of Newspapers who will insert the foregoing prospectus in their papers, once in three months, will be furnished with the work for one year.